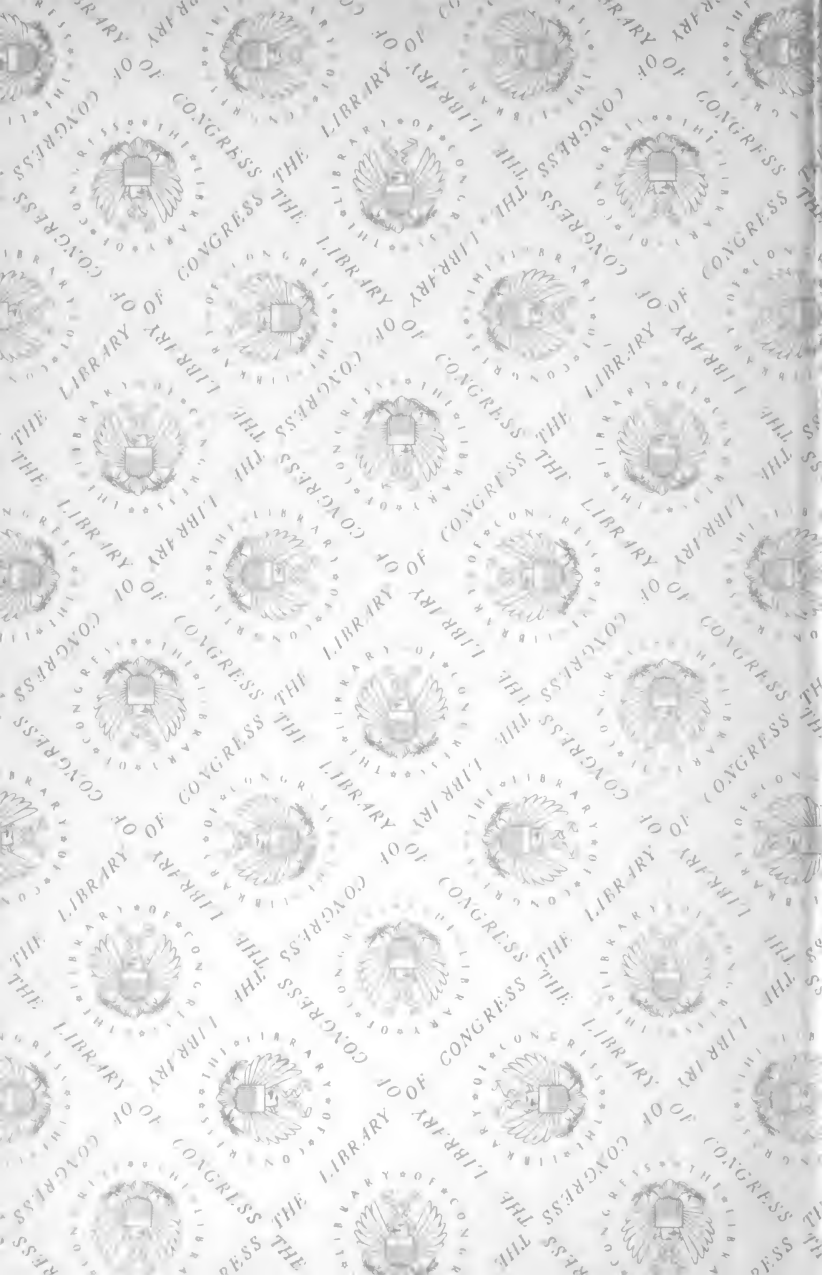


THE
ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION
IN A DEMOCRACY

HORACE A. HOLLISTER







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BY
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TO THE MEMORY OF
JOSIAH L. PICKARD
TEACHER, FRIEND, AND EXEMPLAR OF
A NOBLE CITIZENSHIP

"For this jealous insistence by the States upon their sovereign power in school affairs I have only praise. Nothing is more dangerous for the schools than an all-inclusive system that reaches out over broad domains, having no regard for territorial conditions, much less for purely local demands. Freedom in administration is one of the most important requisites for the success of the public schools."

—GEORG KERSCHENSTEINER,
Director of the schools of Munich, Bavaria.

PREFACE

THIS book was projected with the idea that the time is here for such a preliminary treatment, as an organic whole, of the field of educational administration. In seeking for a unifying principle the inevitable choice fell to our national ideals as expressed in democracy as we Americans have conceived it.

The aim has been to deal with principles, giving just enough space to history and description to furnish a suitable background and to account for sequences. In this way only did it seem possible to deal with the problems presented in such a constructively critical manner as the situation seemed to demand.

The book makes its appeal (1) to teachers and students of education, (2) to school boards and all school officials, and (3) to public men and legislators interested in a comprehensive survey of the problems of public education.

For materials the author has made free use of reports and bulletins of the United States Commissioner's office, of State departments of education, and of city boards and superintendents; of various studies by educational experts of colleges and universities and among school superintendents. Perhaps it is fair to say, however,

that the chief source has been from an experience of over thirty years in direct relationship with public schools and public education, and as a constant student of the problems thus presented.

Acknowledgment is due and gratefully expressed for the many courtesies of school officials in various cities visited or where application was made for published reports and other documents bearing upon the subjects passed in review. Especially is such acknowledgment due to Doctor L. D. Coffman, of the School of Education, and Dean Eugene Davenport, of the College of Agriculture, University of Illinois, for careful and sympathetic reading of the manuscript and for numerous and valuable suggestions and criticisms.

THE AUTHOR.

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS,
May, 1914.

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THE ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRACY

PART ONE

FIELD AND SCOPE OF TREATMENT OUTLINED

CHAPTER I

PRELIMINARY STATEMENT

The nineteenth and the first decade of the twentieth centuries have staged no more remarkable action in the world's drama than the evolution of public education. Sprung from the philosophical theories of Plato and Aristotle, this evolution did not reach concrete and tangible expression until the sixteenth century A. D. One of the earliest and most notable fruits of the Reformation during this century was the impetus given to the movement for popular education. In the same century the Dutch celebrated their victories over Spain, in their remarkable struggle for religious freedom, by establishing both common schools and universities. Simultaneously was laid, in Massachusetts, the foundation and early foreshadowing of our own system of common schools. As an essential part of the same general manifestation of this earlier growth came the schools established by the Dutch in New Amsterdam and the Quakers in Pennsylvania.

1. National Movements

Not, however, until the Revolutionary War had cemented the American colonies into a nation whose earlier declaration of independence became a reality with the war's close did the idea of free public education take form as a national policy. About the same time Prussia, awakened by the losses of the Napoleonic Wars, set resolutely about the task of establishing a system of universal education which later became the dominant system of the united German Empire and the greatest system of popular education in modern Europe.

In a similar way France was roused into action by the Franco-Prussian War and set seriously about the work of organizing the educational forces of the Republic into a state system of public education. Switzerland, Italy, and the Scandinavian states have emulated Prussia, with varying degrees of success, until all these countries are now in line as representing, with us, the democratic idea of education. Japan, in the Orient, stands forth as a remarkable example of the transfer of national methods in education. Here a people of different race ideals has succeeded in adapting much of the best in education that Western civilization has produced, thus giving that nation a most complete system of public schools under efficient organization. This Japan has done, too, apparently without sacrificing any essential features of her own national ideals.

2. Motives for Organized Systems of Education

The narrower and more selfish interests of individuals, clans, or families, or the more effective and general propagation of religious doctrines, were the earlier motives for organized effort in education. Of these two, relig-

ious interests came to dominate the schools on account of the effective organization of various churches and cults. The growth of cities in Europe, the revival and spread of commerce among the new modern nations, the reorganization of industries to suit the demands of this wider distribution of their products, and, above all, the spread of democratic ideals, all conspired to change the motive of education to these more secular interests and to transfer the administration of education from church to state.

3. Steps Leading to Secularization of Education

At first education was administered almost solely by the church. Thus it was that the masses came to look upon it as a secondary religious function of that body. Occasionally individual enterprises sprang up as commercial ventures; but the idea of a system of public education, administered by experts especially trained and equipped for such service, has developed slowly in most countries. Meantime the church, especially in its original types and where it was definitely established by the state, has contended strenuously for the retention of the educational function as its prerogative.

Against this attitude of the religious orders two forces have operated powerfully and are still operative. In the first place, the Reformation resulted in splitting organized Christianity into numerous sects and denominations, thus distributing both the authority and the responsibility of education among a large number of bodies. One very important and direct result of this change was to leave a large body of people who were unattached to any Christian sect without means of education in a form acceptable to them.

In the second place, the growth of the idea of democ-

racy has put a peculiar stress upon the need of universal education. The development of modern science and its application to the industries has further accentuated the necessity of finding some scheme which will insure such universal educational facilities.

Out of the reaction of these contending forces has come the present situation with regard to the organization and administration of education. As we may readily see, the situation varies greatly in the different countries above referred to. The more directly these have come up out of traditional ecclesiastical control, the more difficult has it been to break away from this and to make education a secular function of the State. In this respect Japan represents the extreme of release from traditional complications. The British colonial governments of Canada, Australia, and New Zealand are further illustrations of a weakened influence of tradition as compared with the mother country.

In the United States, while we are still left with a dominant secular control, yet the peculiar nature of our institutions, together with the vastness of the immigration to our shores, has not left us free from some serious complications in this respect. There can be no ground for doubt, however, as to the outcome. If we are to maintain the free institutions for which our fathers contended we must maintain a complete and universal system of free public education. Church schools and schools under private control may still be maintained, and for an indefinite time to come. They need not be interfered with so long as they are able to show results in education that are a reasonably satisfactory equivalent of the secular schools of the State. Such a continuance of these schools, however, can never relieve the State of its obligation to support, at public expense,

such a system of education as shall fully meet the requirements for maintaining those conditions of intelligence, skill, and morality among the people necessary to the perpetuation of our democratic institutions.

The inadequacy of a system of schools administered solely by the church stands out more clearly with each advanced step in the evolution of democratic societies with their ever-increasing demands for technical education.

4. Causes of Slow Development of Popular Education

The retardation which the tradition of religious control of education has caused in the development of an efficiently administered educational scheme of universal character has been much greater than at first appears. In the first place it has made it more difficult for the people at large to grasp the significance of education as a public measure and financed from the common treasury. So deeply did the popular mind become habituated to the performance, by the church, of the educational function that many even yet fail to appreciate the need and the economic importance, for instance, of the supervisory function as exercised by the State or district in the management of schools. The same state of mind has been a chief cause for a similar lethargy in regard to the professional training of those who are to teach and supervise these schools. Nevertheless, our schools may now be said to be completely secularized. To quote from a recent study of this subject:¹ "To-day we find in every State a system of public education in which civic and industrial aims are dominant, in which religious instruction is either entirely eliminated or else

¹ Samuel W. Brown, "The Secularization of American Education," contributions to Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1912.

reduced to the barest and most formal elements, and the control of which is vested well-nigh exclusively in the State or some subdivision thereof. Two factors have been dominant in bringing about this transformation. The first of these is the conviction that a republic can securely rest only on an educated citizenship; the second is a sacred regard by the State for the religious opinion of the individual citizen."

Another cause of this retardation is seen in the difficulty with which the full significance of democracy in education is grasped by the popular mind. Even yet there are many who think of schools chiefly as a means of advantage to the individual or his family. From the point of view of the childless taxpayer this takes form in a protest at having to help educate his neighbor's children. The man who patronizes only private schools, for which he pays directly, or the man who, for conscience' sake, helps pay for a school as a religious propaganda, often calls the additional tax for the support of public schools unjust. These momentarily forget their share of interest in that part of the body politic which can neither afford the luxury of exclusiveness which the private school offers nor accept the doctrines which the church would inculcate.

Even if it were possible for all to accept some of the many forms of religious faith as a basis for education, such a scheme could not begin to compete with the State in the efficiency of the schools organized. Many of the different religious denominations are small and therefore financially weak. They could never hope to keep pace with the stronger organizations in the support of adequate school facilities.

Along with other things, the ability to understand the greatly increased cost of education has developed tar-

dily. Gradually much of the work of the home and of the church as well have been transferred to the school. At the same time there has come a rapid increase in the demand for educational facilities extending beyond the merely elementary stages. Thus it has gradually come about that many services previously rendered to society through other instrumentalities are now expected from the schools along with the natural increase of educational demands, and the resulting increase in the educational budget is correspondingly large. These various services which society has thus laid upon the schools are fundamental to our industrial growth and to the maintenance of our national ideals, and hence not to be evaded without serious loss to the nation. But the massing of these and the consequent largeness of the direct tax involved is something for which the popular mind has not been prepared. This situation, together with the traditional Anglo-Saxon dislike for direct taxation, has materially retarded the development of our educational ideals as compared with our growth in other respects.

At the very beginning of experiments with popular education, for want of a very clearly conceived ideal as to materials and methods, we accepted the traditional school as it had evolved under ecclesiastical administration. This fact, together with long neglect of the study of educational philosophy as applied to the needs of a democracy, has been another cause for retardation. Very slowly, indeed, have we proceeded in breaking with the traditional types which we thus inherited. Nor has this release from hampering traditions been uniform. Thus far, in the rapid development of our vast domains, the movement of educational progress seems to have followed the westward migration of succeeding generations of our younger population. In several ways it is true

that the greatest advancement to-day in that form of popular education befitting a democracy is to be found on the Pacific coast. Meantime, the more frequent mingling of educational workers is bringing about a more general diffusion of ideas, methods, and types. Thus the East is giving to the West the results of its more highly perfected forms of education, while it also receives from its Western offspring the more highly perfected ideals of education which regions untrammelled by traditions have been able to develop under the skilful direction of men of high educational attainments drawn from all sections of our country.

5. Conditions Calculated to Reveal Defects

The events of the past half century in our national development have been well calculated to bring out rather sharply the defects of our public educational scheme which are directly traceable to the conditions which we have here set in brief review. The increasing sharpness of commercial competition among the great producing nations; the extensive travel and the study abroad of many of our leaders in educational thought; the opportunities of comparing the abilities of the different competing nations in the application of skill and of scientific knowledge to the great producing industries which the numerous international expositions have afforded have had a remarkable awakening effect on the popular estimate of the value to a nation of an efficient scheme of education. Heretofore we have had no definite standards by which to estimate results. True, we have read the stories of the experiences of other nations; we have even looked on placidly while Japan was making preparation for the adjustment of her educational forces; but it has required the limelight of a direct comparison

and a relentless competition in the world's marts to fully arouse us.

As a result we find our school system subjected to searching criticism on the part of a public which has remained rather lethargic until now, and which even yet seems inclined to overlook its own part in the retarded growth of our educational methods and facilities. This popular criticism promises well for the future. It indicates that there is at least some degree of comprehension as to the real value and importance of having the most efficiently and economically administered system of education which modern scientific training can evolve. This means, again, that, although the educational budget must ever increase, yet people will no longer haggle over the cost of an undertaking from which society is able to realize so much both in increased wealth and in security, public and private.

6. Basis and Method of This Discussion

The time, therefore, seems opportune for the discussion of the various problems of educational administration in the light of present conditions, social and economic, and in harmony with such principles of psychology, pedagogy, and sociology as are now clearly established. Much stress has thus far been laid upon school management, with almost exclusive reference to the direction of the instructional work of the school. It is believed that there is need of a more systematic discussion of all the related aspects of school administration in order that the bearing of each phase of it upon the others may be the more fully appreciated.

The subject of public education is a broad one—too broad to admit of comprehensive treatment in a single volume. It is proposed in this present effort to confine

the work to a discussion of the school as that particular instrument which society has set up for training the young to efficiency in service and to the ability to start as nearly abreast of the time in which they live as is possible through any such conventional practice. In this treatment all types of school education necessary to the operation of a State system in a democracy will come under review, together with such accessory features of education as may be clearly needed in order to give full setting to the situation.

The establishment of a school in any form involves the idea of the organization of materials and forces into an environment created especially for the purpose of setting up those reactions in the young which are found to be necessary in order to accomplish the purposes of education as just stated. The materials of education are to be provided and directive intelligence in their application and use must be supplied.

Society itself must determine what schools are to be provided; what materials are to be used; what teachers and supervisors shall be employed and on what conditions. On the other hand, there must be expert direction in securing those adjustments among teachers, materials, and pupils necessary to the accomplishment of the immediate ends of education. These two fundamental aspects of school work give us the two leading departments of administrative effort. The first of these is usually set forth in laws the execution of which is vested in various State and local officials including boards of education. The second is delegated, at the discretion of educational boards, to such teachers and supervisors as may be selected and employed by them under the laws creating and defining the schools to be established.

Under the first it is proposed to discuss especially the establishment, equipment, and maintenance of schools and the training, selection, employment, and compensation of teachers. Under the second will be considered the administration of instruction in its various phases. In both cases the purpose will be to get at underlying principles rather than to give a descriptive treatment, and to rely, as far as possible, on what is at present known of the character of education needed in a democracy and the methods of attaining it.

CHAPTER II

NATIONAL IDEALS AND STANDARDS

The dominant motive for American colonization is found in that general revolt against corrupt ecclesiasticism known in history as the Reformation. Closely following this denunciation of religious corruption came a call for the better education of all the people. The later declaration of political freedom by the American colonists was the natural corollary to the initial motive for revolt. This applies especially to colonization in New England, New Amsterdam, and Pennsylvania. Thus it was inevitable that, from the first, a free government and a system of universal education were evolved side by side and as complements each of the other.

1. Massachusetts Leads in Setting Up Ideals

While all of the above-named colonies shared in this evolution, yet matters moved more rapidly in Massachusetts than in the other colonies. As a result there were early established here some of the most fundamental principles since embodied in the educational system of this country. Among these principles, and first expressed in the laws of 1642 and 1647 making provision for education in Massachusetts, are the following:¹

“The universal education of youth is essential to the

¹ See Martin, “Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System,” pp. 14, 15.

well-being of the State; the obligation to furnish this education rests primarily upon the parent; the State has the right to enforce this obligation; the State may fix a standard which shall determine the kind of education and the minimum amount; a general tax may be levied, although school attendance is not general, to be used in providing such education as the State requires; education higher than the rudiments may be supplied by the State, and opportunity must be provided at public expense for youths who wish to be fitted for the university." Thus early were formulated the essential features of a free common-school system such as has since been established in each State of our larger Union.

The principles here enunciated are comprehensive enough, when broadly interpreted, to serve as a foundation for the organization and establishment of a complete system of education; but, owing to the influence of tradition, the unfolding of such a system has been very slow and even yet is found to be incomplete in some important features.

2. Educational Ideals of Early Statesmen

From the very beginning of the nation the leaders of public thought and action have cherished high ideals as to the intelligence demanded of a self-governing people; but the people in whose hands has been the development of our educational system have manifested a conservatism that is little in keeping with their enthusiasm for free institutions. Among the framers of our government were a number of men who had caught clear visions of the future republic and the stress and strain that would come to it with its growth; but the majority seemed to respond but feebly to their appeals for some action in regard to education. Often, indeed, the

attitude was that of pure indifference. Washington talked and wrote tirelessly in his advocacy of a national university which should set up standards in learning and research and, by bringing together men from all parts of the nation, help to break down or prevent the growth of sectionalism.

No less persistent and more effective were Jefferson's ideals in regard to a complete system of public education under local control and supported by voluntary local taxation.

In New York Alexander Hamilton left an indelible record of his peculiar ideas of nationalism upon the educational system of that State when he secured the enactment by the legislature of his measure for the establishment of the Regency of the University of New York.¹

3. Federal Policy Concerning Education

None of these conceptions of educational organization found expression in the national Constitution. After some discussion of the proposition to establish a national university even that matter was left for later sessions of the national Congress to wrestle with. The entire organization and management of public schools, which all agreed were fundamental to the establishment of a government based upon the franchise of its citizens, was, by common consent, left in the hands of the States.

Another glimpse of the trend of thought in regard to education comes to us in connection with the enactment of the Ordinance of 1787, and its renewal under the Constitution of 1789. The granting of one section of land out of each township under the Congressional sur-

¹ "Works of Alexander Hamilton," edited by John C. Hamilton, edition of 1850, vol. II, pp. 341 ff.

vey as an endowment to education in the States, with the later addition of a second section, served as a concrete and tangible expression of the sentiment handed down in the language of the Ordinance.

The fact that the management of these land gifts and their proceeds was left to the States placed further emphasis upon the policy of non-interference by the Federal Government in the domain of public education. A little supervisory control by the central government might have made possible the saving of millions to the distributable funds of the States. But the decentralizing influences growing out of the revolutionary movements of Europe at that time seem to have rendered such a procedure impossible if not unthought of.

4. State Systems and the Training of Teachers

Very early in the development of State systems, especially in the older States, it became evident that some special provision must be made for the training of teachers in a professional way. This naturally met with the opposition of those interested in colleges where classical and religious training predominated, and of all those who still thought of education as a function of the church rather than of the state. Indeed, it appears that these same classes were for a long time opposed to public education in general.¹ Various sporadic attempts at providing for the professional training of teachers were made by private institutions very early in the nineteenth century. But not until 1839 were the first normal schools really established in Massachusetts. Similar schools were begun in New York in 1844, Connecticut in 1852, Rhode Island in 1854, and Pennsylvania in 1855. Thus

¹ See Martin, "Evolution of Massachusetts Public School System," chap. IV.

by the end of the first half century of progress in our educational system this important feature of the work, already firmly established in Prussia, was generally recognized by the States.

5. Federal Land Grants

The most remarkable manifestation of national ideals in education as expressed by the Federal Government had its rise in the Central West at about the middle of the nineteenth century. The movement began with the organization of an Industrial League in 1851 at Granville, Ill.¹ Through the influence of this League the General Assembly of that State, in February, 1853, memorialized Congress with regard to the enactment of a law "donating to each State in the Union an amount of public lands not less in value than five hundred thousand dollars for the liberal endowment of a system of industrial universities . . . for the more liberal and practical education of our industrial classes and their teachers." Professor J. B. Turner, chief director of the Industrial League, first outlined the general plan of these institutions. Through the activity of the League a bill was introduced in Congress, in 1857, which embodied the proposed endowment. The bill passed, but was vetoed by President Buchanan. It was known as the Morrill Act, and was finally passed and approved by President Lincoln, July 2, 1862. The bill as passed was different from the first proposal in that it provided for the granting of land to the amount of thirty thousand acres for each representative and senator to which any State was entitled in Congress. Subsequent grants, as that in 1887 for founding experiment stations in agriculture, the

¹ Edmund J. James, "Origin of the Land Grant Act of 1862," *University Studies*, vol. 4, no. 1, University of Illinois.

second Morrill Act of 1890, the Nelson amendment which followed, and the Adams Act of 1906, greatly increasing the funds for experiment station work, carry the same general significance with respect to the national policy regarding education as did the original act of 1862.

6. Bureau of Education Established

Again the Federal Government gave expression to a recognized need of a national supervisory function with regard to education by establishing, in 1867, under the Department of State, the United States Bureau of Education and appointing a commissioner to attend to the duties prescribed. No directive authority over the schools was vested in this office, but the commissioner was authorized to collect and compile statistics and to furnish such other information of a national and international character as should be deemed serviceable to the educational interests of the country.

7. Slowness of Acceptance by the Masses

While we have these evidences of a national feeling for the free education of the masses, yet the masses seem to have been very slow in acquiring ideals of education sufficiently strong to keep up the standards required under our manner of government. Fortunate, indeed, was it for this country that many of the colonies developed so early a scheme for carrying on free public schools. Without the leadership of such a State as Massachusetts, it is impossible to say what might long since have become of our experiment in democracy. As it was, Massachusetts, even, suffered a relapse which required a great educational revival to overcome. In 1824 we find James G. Carter stating the situation thus: "If

the policy of the Legislature in regard to free schools for the last twenty years be not changed, the institution which has been the glory of New England will, in twenty years more, be extinct.”¹ It is a long, hard road to that enlightenment of a people necessary to the exercise of sovereign power in a free country. Perhaps no one has expressed this problem more clearly than has Horace Mann, called, as he was, to lead in the great revival. These are his words:² “The education of the whole people, in a republican government, can never be attained without the consent of the whole people. Compulsion, even if it were desirable, is not an available instrument. Enlightenment, not coercion, is our resource. The nature of education must be explained. The whole mass of mind must be instructed in regard to its comprehension and enduring interests. We cannot drive our people up a dark avenue even though it be the right one; but must hang the starry lights of knowledge about it, and show them not only the directness of the course to the goal of prosperity and honor but the beauty of the way that leads to it.”

Out of such a campaign of enlightenment, wisely begun by those who preceded, and pushed with enthusiasm, tact, and patient endurance by Mann and his coworkers, came the rehabilitation of the public schools of Massachusetts, the establishment of normal schools, and the complete and final commitment of the people of that State to a broad and efficient system of public education. And it is not too much to say that the lights thus kindled and kept burning have multiplied themselves

¹ In an address entitled “The Schools of Massachusetts in 1824,” *Old South Leaflets*, no. 134.

² See “Life and Works of Horace Mann, Lectures and Reports,” II, p. 286. Lee and Shepard, Boston, 1891.

again and again as the need has come out of the rapid upbuilding of that larger nation which has spread beyond the Appalachians, even to the western slopes of the Rockies and the Sierras.

8. National Standards Set

It is a remarkable situation which is presented when we contemplate the nation's attitude toward higher education and toward the general supervision of certain aspects of our educational development which are clearly national in scope. With Washington's idea of a national university realized, what mighty power it must have exerted in unifying and giving clear outline to our educational aims and purposes, to say nothing of the advantages which must have been derived from the scientific research which such an institution would have fostered and developed!

Not less disappointing, as we look for the nation's comprehension of the task it had assumed, is the slighting way in which the whole matter of a national administrative function in education has been treated. War, the navy, all other great public affairs have found a ready recognition among the interests of the National Government. Educational institutions for the training of fighters have been provided; but when it comes to the great arts of peace and to that particular institution upon which, more than all else, the nation's welfare and security must depend, the Congress has remained strangely silent and conservative.

In the provision made for industrial education we see a clearer vision and a higher purpose. In land grants and appropriations for higher institutions devoted to training and research in the great, fundamental industries, the government authorities have fixed a purpose

and standard for education in the States the beneficent force of which will appear more and more as the years pass.

Wherever the Federal Government has undertaken educational work it has usually been of a high order. In military training this is especially noticeable. The men trained at West Point and Annapolis have usually proven themselves to be well trained not alone in the arts of war, but in some of the arts of peace as well. This seems especially true of those trained in engineering. In these schools the government has thus set up standards of efficiency in service that have had a marked influence upon the country's ideals. So likewise the standards set by the various branches of the civil service, as determined by the examinations, have had a certain influence in determining standards in education.

But the real ideals and standards which the nation holds have unfolded gradually as our conception of democracy has been slowly evolving through the experiences of years. For they are coming to us, as Horace Mann said, not by coercion but by enlightenment. After all, it is our ideal of democracy that must determine our educational ideals. How little the relation between the two was comprehended at first is plainly shown by the experience of Massachusetts. In this respect history is ever repeating itself. If we were to undertake to-day to measure the duration of our institutions in the light of the prevalent popular conception of the kind of general intelligence necessary to efficient citizenship, it is doubtful if we should give as much time for their endurance as did James G. Carter, in 1824, to the free-school system of New England. But now, even as then, there are educational evangelists abroad, speaking, writing, working tirelessly for that final day when all shall con-

cede the needs of popular education to the utmost of society's ability to provide.

9. Evidences of Advancement

Meanwhile, we have tried and doubtless are still to try many wasteful and costly experiments in our efforts to secure a reasonably complete, sane, and efficient administration of this very important branch of service which society undertakes to render itself through co-operation. "No deeper conviction," says President Butler,¹ "pervades the people of the United States than that the preservation of liberty under the law, and of the institutions that are our precious possession and proud heritage, depends upon the intelligence of the whole people." If this is true, then, no matter how often we may fail in our experiments, ultimately we shall find a way to insure this intelligence.

Recent years have witnessed a rapid change in the mental attitude of the nation in regard to education. In the first place, we have had opportunity to study more carefully the cases of Prussia and France and to understand what actuated them in the establishment of national educational systems. The development of our own national life; the growth of our population, bringing with it new problems as to citizenship, as to industries, and as to social relations and international interests; the consequent widening of our responsibilities—all these things have added materially to our realization of the vital relation which education bears to our existence and the perpetuation of our national ideals and institutions.

Then there has come about such a social change, due

¹ In "The Meaning of Education," pp. 108-109. New York. Macmillan, 1898.

to the division of labor and more extensive organization in production, as to make it necessary greatly to increase the work of the schools in order to replace much that can no longer be intrusted to the family or to other educational influences of the social group.

As a result our conception of the function of public education has been greatly enlarged. We no longer think of the school as a place merely for acquiring the rudiments of learning, the arts of the school itself. The content of learning has been greatly increased. At the same time the necessity for industrial training to take the place of an obsolescent apprentice system has come to be quite generally recognized especially among social and industrial leaders. Along with this also comes a stressing of the demand for a different kind of moral training than that which has heretofore been thought of as a function of the school.

The present outlook, then, as seen in the expression of our leaders in educational thought, calls for a system of education that shall embody a harmonious and related blending of intellectual, moral, and industrial training of all children and youth to the end that each may live efficiently, possessed of that civic and industrial intelligence, that skill to do a needed service, and that high moral sense which the nature of our existence as a democracy is now seen to demand.

To quote again from President Butler:¹ "But I am profoundly convinced that the greatest educational need of our time, in higher and lower schools alike, is a fuller appreciation on the part of the teachers of what human institutions really mean and what tremendous moral issues and principles they involve. The ethics of individual life must be traced to its roots in the ethics of the

¹ *Op. cit.*, p. 121.

social whole. The family, property, the common law, the state, and the church are all involved. These and their products, taken together, constitute civilization and mark it off from barbarism. Inheritor of a glorious past, each generation is a trustee for posterity. To preserve, protect, and transmit its inheritance unimpaired is its highest duty. To accomplish this is not the task of the few but the duty of all."

CHAPTER III

EVOLUTION OF FREE COMMON SCHOOLS

The ferment of ideas and forces in mediæval Europe produced the seed germs of our common-school system. There came out of that strange mingling of ancient civilization with the Christianized barbarism of northern Europe, touched, in turn, by the life and learning of the East, a wonderful revival of trade and industries. This new life was destined soon to grow to greater proportions than the world of commerce and industry had yet seen. Centres of population teeming with the new activity developed rapidly. Out of this growth of cities new problems arose calling for a new education which the monastic schools could not offer.

I. Early Types

This condition of things gave rise to the burgh or city grammar-schools under the care of municipalities. The appearance of these schools, differentiated from the schools of the church to meet new social demands, doubtless marks the beginning of the modern secular free school.¹ The opening of writing and "reckoning" schools as private enterprises in the interests of the training demanded for business became a factor also in the development of these schools of the people. It remained only for the powerful influence of the Reformation to weld these all into a scheme of secular education for the

¹ See "A Study of Mediæval Schools and School Work," L. F. Anderson, *Pedagogical Seminary*, vol. XIV, pp. 223-82.

masses which was the forerunner of the American common-school system and of all European systems as well.

2. Beginnings in Germany

The influence of Luther and his associates soon produced a marked effect on the educational interests of the continent. In the latter half of the sixteenth century beginnings were made in Prussia¹ for the organization of popular education under the supervision of the church. It remained for Frederick the Great, two centuries later, to clearly state the principles by which public instruction should be administered. A little later, or about 1794, the Prussian code of laws (*Landrecht*) was adopted, in which the schools received complete recognition. The severe trials and losses of the Napoleonic Wars stirred Prussia and indeed all Germany to a keen realization of the educational needs of the people. In 1807 Ferdinand William III gave utterance to the famous words: "The state must regain in mental force what it has lost in physical force." This utterance has since been the guiding principle not only of Prussia but of the whole German Empire. It was then that the state assumed full control of the educational system under a "Minister of Worship and Public Instruction." And in 1850 Prussia was able to write into her new constitution: "Science and the teaching of science are free."

3. Beginnings in the Netherlands

It is interesting to note further how general and simultaneous was the movement for the establishment of public schools in Europe. As early as the twelfth century

¹ For account of Prussian schools, *cf.* L. R. Klemm, U. S. Com. Report, 1889-90, vol. I, pp. 455-64; also U. S. Com. Report, 1867-8 (Barnard), pp. 435-522.

the stronger communities, chiefly the cities, of Holland and Belgium established schools for the common people.¹ These were exclusive of the various church schools. In the case of Holland the instruction in these schools was taken from the supervision of the clergy and thus became essentially secular.

Universities and Latin schools were also established as early as the sixteenth century. Like the United States, the Netherlands, by the terms of their constitution, grant entire liberty of conscience to all religious denominations. In all their legislation concerning primary instruction the Dutch have been opposed to denominational schools. Their government was the first of European countries, in the beginning of the nineteenth century, to promulgate laws for the establishment of state schools, viz., in 1801, 1803, and 1806.

4. Denmark

As early as 1721 a royal decree was issued by Frederic IV of Denmark² regulating the organization of peoples' schools. The Reformation period produced the Latin schools characteristic of western Europe. Normal schools were first established near the close of the eighteenth century. In 1814 two decrees were issued which more completely organized the common-school system, including the country as well as the cities. These decrees form the basis for the present system of education in Denmark. The head of the system is the University of Copenhagen, which exercises a powerful control over all educational institutions. Religion is a dominant element in the instruction of all the schools.

¹ Cf. Miss Sophie Nussbaum, in U. S. Com. of Ed. Report, 1894-5, vol. I, pp. 475-542.

² Cf. F. G. French, U. S. Com. Report, 1889-90, vol. I, pp. 519-547.

5. Norway

In Norway the first great impetus to popular education came through the Reformation as early as 1536; but this did not result in the immediate establishment of a system of schools. The present school system is based on a decree issued in 1736. Religious instruction was the chief purpose under this decree. A more comprehensive law for educational purposes was that of 1827, which has since been greatly modified and extended, especially by the law of 1889.

6. Austria

In Austria¹ the movement for public education began about 1774, under Maria Theresa. But it was not until 1848 that much of an effective nature could be accomplished. Other enactments followed in 1861 which greatly affected the development of the schools. In 1868 measures were adopted which freed all instruction except that of religion from the control of the church, and in 1869 the law defining the course of study was passed. This became the basis for a rapid development of common schools in Austria.

7. Scotland and England

It was probably Scotland² that produced the first compulsory school law in Europe. This was as early as 1494, under the reign of James IV. The law had reference to the grammar-schools and universities, both of which had previously been established. The effect of the Reformation was strong from the very beginning. In 1542 the Parliament granted the privilege of having

¹ Cf. Klemm, U. S. Com. Report, 1889-90, vol. I, pp. 419-454.

² Cf. A. T. Smith, in U. S. Com. Report, 1889-90, vol. I, pp. 187-235

the Scriptures translated into the vernacular for the use of all the people.

Under the leadership of John Knox education became a fundamental principle of government. The acts of 1633 and 1696 gave a very complete system of public schools under control of the church. In 1861 and 1872 acts were passed which gave to Scotland a civil rather than an ecclesiastical system of schools. The development of popular education in Scotland became the basis at once for the inspiration and emulation of England in her efforts toward public education. In 1870 the latter country succeeded in giving legal form to a system of common elementary schools. The Scotch system, on the other hand, included, also, secondary schools, normal schools, and universities. By reason, chiefly, of the peculiar relationship of church and state England has moved but slowly in the process of adapting her schools to the needs of such a great democratic people. Nevertheless, it should not be forgotten that whenever there has been an extension of the suffrage, as in the thirties and again in the seventies of the nineteenth century, Parliament has always sought to make a correspondingly liberal provision for public education.

8. France

The French¹ system of public instruction owes its existence directly to the influence of the Revolution and Napoleon, on the one hand, and to the disasters of the Franco-Prussian War on the other. The establishment of the Imperial University in 1808 was the first important step. By this means secondary and higher education were organized throughout the communes. It was Guizot's law of 1833, however, which was essentially

¹ Cf. A. T. Smith, in U. S. Com. Report, 1890-1, vol. I, pp. 100-120.

the first charter of primary education in France. From 1872, under the ministry of M. Ferry, until the present time popular education of a secular character has made most rapid progress in that country.

9. Simultaneous Development of Public Education

Thus out of those combined forces which gave to Europe the Renaissance there grew, with the progress of enlightenment and of commerce, a system of universal education among the nations of the Western world. The seeds of learning fostered by the church and by the Greek scholars of the Eastern Empire thus were gradually disseminated. Out of the mingling of the old learning with the forces and human interests of a new environment came that larger conception of a knowledge of letters as a boon to all classes and as a powerful means to a greater degree of social well-being.

So it happened that simultaneously throughout Europe and the American colonies there appeared the first expression of the idea of popular education. Practically in the space of a century of time there appeared, as a direct result of the Reformation, statutes and edicts establishing schools for the people in Scotland, Holland, Norway, Prussia, and Massachusetts; while only a little more extension of time gives us also the popular schools of Austria, Denmark, Switzerland—all of Europe except the Latin states, the Turkish domain, and Russia.

10. Description of the Prussian System as a Type

Returning to Prussia, we may take her schools as typical of advanced European education and as a basis for a little closer comparison, in detail, with the development of our own system of administering education. From the time when Humboldt was made the first Min-

ister of Public Instruction, Prussia has had an efficient scheme for the administration of public education. This includes common schools for the masses, trade schools, secondary schools, normal schools, and universities. Briefly, the plan of administration is as follows: The centre of the system of education in a German state or kingdom is in the office of the minister of ecclesiastical, educational, and medical affairs. This officer is a member of the King's cabinet, but his tenure is at the will of the Emperor. He has general direction and supervision of all educational institutions of the kingdom, including all examinations; the dispensing of school moneys, the fixing of salaries and the pensioning of teachers; the ratification of courses of study, and the regulating of private schools. He further represents the school interests in the parliament of his state and lays plans for the financial support of the school. In his hands is the appointment of councillors, members of provincial boards, and other school officials, excepting such as receive their appointment directly from the Emperor. The kingdom is divided into provinces, each having a president and cabinet; in each cabinet is a provincial school councillor; through these school councillors of the provinces the minister communicates with the lower authorities. In each province there is also a school board (*Schul-kollegium*) of which the provincial councillor is head. With him are associated several others, all educational experts. These boards have chiefly the oversight of secondary schools. Each province is again divided into subdivisions (*Regierungen*) like large counties; each of these governmental districts also has its president and councillors, including a school councillor; these school councillors act as examiners and supervisors of their entire districts with special oversight of the common schools.

Each district is divided into circuits (Kreise) corresponding to our townships. The cities constitute circuits by themselves, and then there are the country circuits. In the city the burgomaster stands at the head and a committee of three or five members of the city council act as the local school board. At the head of the country circuit is the Landrath, and three or five leading citizens are appointed to act as a school board. The royal secondary schools are under the direct care of boards of trustees. These various boards have about the same powers and duties as our city school boards, except that the courses of study are those prescribed by the central government through the office of the minister.

Generally speaking, the local authorities nominate the teacher, subject to approval by the higher authorities. Little expert supervision is called for. The teachers are approved by the government, after receiving the prescribed training, and so are considered competent to direct the work of their schools in accordance with the prescribed courses. A general supervision is, however, exercised by the state through the provincial and district councillors. Local supervision is exercised by the mayor and clergymen or by community school boards or professional inspectors appointed by them.

The normal schools and universities are under the direct control of the state and supported directly by it. In this way the state is able to exercise direct supervision of the training of teachers and educational experts who are to direct the work of instruction in all public educational institutions. It is in this manner, chiefly, that the state controls the educational situation.

The public schools of Prussia are established and maintained partly by the state and partly by communities. In this respect the state leaves the initiative to

communities, especially in establishing common or folk schools (Volksschulen). Usually the community raises about three fourths of the fund necessary for maintenance. The other one fourth comes directly from the state and from the income on certain permanent educational funds. In the matter of higher education the state bears about three eighths of the cost in the case of scientific, technical, and industrial secondary schools, while for the classical schools of this grade the state's share is nearly seven tenths.

11. Secularization Largely the Result of a Religious Movement

The administrative plans of other countries mentioned above will be found to vary chiefly as influenced by peculiar traditional institutions and methods. Of all it may truly be said that the traditions which grew up under the administration of education by the church were most powerful in determining both the types of schools to be organized and the kind of instruction to be given. Even yet this influence is seen to be profound both in Europe and America. Strangely enough, it was a religious movement more than anything else which brought about the secularization of education; for it was through the influence of the Reformation, as we have seen, that the vernacular became the medium of instruction in all countries, the sole purpose of which was to make at least the rudiments of education the common possession of all the people.

12. Beginnings in New England

It was this influence that led the colonists of Massachusetts, twenty-two years after the landing at Plymouth Rock, to enact the first law leading to the estab-

lishment of schools. This was the order of the General Court of Elections, made in 1642,¹ and which provided: (1) That the men chosen to look after the prudential affairs should have the care of children whose parents neglected their education. (2) To this end they were empowered to take account of all children, to ascertain concerning their calling and employment and "of their ability to read and understand the principles of religion and the capital laws of the country." (3) To apprentice "the children of those not able to employ and bring them up." (4) To look after their general conduct. (5) They were also to provide materials, tools, and implements for the work of such children as were under their care. In this way it was expected to provide that no children should grow up as illiterates or as unable to follow some useful occupation. The act of the General Court of 1647 laid the foundation for all subsequent legislation in the colony. As has been seen in a previous chapter, these two acts embodied practically all the essential principles of a free-school system.

Six years previous to the first act in regard to elementary instruction, the General Court of Massachusetts had taken steps toward providing collegiate education through the establishment of Harvard College.

In 1650² Connecticut adopted practically the same provisions in regard to elementary schools as those adopted by the Massachusetts General Court in 1647. Connecticut also agreed to support the college at Cambridge. Later provisions were made from time to time to perfect the schools of the colony, and also for the establishment of a college. Yale College, at New Haven,

¹ See Mass. Col. Record, II, 8-9.

² See Clews, "Educational Legislation and Administration of the Colonial Government," pp. 72-163.

was the result, established by act of the colonial legislature in October, 1701.

New Hampshire,¹ through her legislature, first made provision for public education in 1693. This primary enactment was supported and perfected by subsequent acts, especially those of 1719 and 1721. Through the efforts of Governor Wentworth a royal charter was obtained in 1769 establishing Dartmouth College at Hanover.

13. Pennsylvania

The charter by which Charles II made William Penn proprietor of the territory extending a distance of five degrees west of the Delaware River included among its provisions a committee of the Provincial Council to have charge of manners, education and arts.² Immediately after his arrival in his province Penn called a provincial assembly. On the second meeting of this assembly, March, 1683, provision was made for the instruction of all children in reading and writing and in "some useful trade or skill." These schools, however, seem to have been private church schools, and were not open as free schools to children of other religious faith than that of the Quakers.

By the amended constitution of 1790 the following provision was made: "The legislature shall, as soon as conveniently may be, provide by law for the establishment of schools throughout the State, in such manner that the poor may be taught gratis." Not until 1831, however, was there established a free common-school system in Pennsylvania.

¹ See Clews, *op. cit.*, pp. 164-184.

² See Clews, pp. 279-312. See also U. S. Com. Report, 1876, pp. 331-334.

14. New York and New Jersey

Schools were established by the Dutch in New York¹ as early as 1633. Provision was made for one school in each parish. These schools were continued for about a century after the English occupation. The first English schools were established in the early part of the eighteenth century. King's College, the beginning of what is now Columbia University, was chartered in 1754. In 1789 two lots in each township were set apart to be surveyed "for gospel and school purposes." In 1795 an act was passed appropriating fifty thousand dollars annually for five years to encourage the establishment of schools in cities and towns of the State. In these schools the children were to be taught "English grammar, arithmetic, mathematics, and such other branches of knowledge as are most necessary to complete a good English education." Other arrangements were made whereby a very good system of schools for that time might be administered. But the act of 1795 expired by limitation in 1800, and no permanent renewal of organized schools was accomplished until 1812.

In New Jersey the first schools were "rate schools" established under the jurisdiction of the Friends in 1693. Not until 1816 did the State make any provision for free schools.

15. Delaware and Maryland

The warring interests of different national types in Delaware effectually prevented the establishment of any system of people's schools during the colonial period.

¹ See U. S. Com. Report, 1876-77, pp. 273-276. Also W. H. Kirkpatrick, "The Dutch Schools of New Netherland and Colonial New York," U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1912, no. 12.

So also the peculiar conditions of settlement, and the failure of the English type of grammar-schools to find subsistence, made Maryland barren, as a colony, of any notable progress in public education.

16. Virginia

It was as late as 1797 before Virginia was able to enact a law for the establishment of public schools. Previous to this time the wealthier classes provided for the education of their children chiefly by employing tutors in their homes. It was through the influence of Jefferson and Wythe, who framed the measure, that the first free-school legislation was secured for Virginia.

17. The Carolinas and Georgia

Free schools were established in North Carolina¹ in 1749. Practically all of the better influences found in New England and the middle colonies were represented in the character of the settlers of North Carolina. Here were Scotch, Irish, English, Dutch, and German. The chief difference seems to have been in the fact that the homogeneity of the population of the colonies of New England was wanting here. Still the colony moved forward educationally in a most remarkable way. The eighteenth century saw the establishment not only of the free elementary schools, but also of academies and the University of North Carolina. The first State constitution, adopted in December, 1776, contains these memorable words: "A school or schools shall be established by the Legislature for the convenient instruction of youth, with such salaries to the masters, paid by the public, as may enable them to instruct at low prices;

¹ See C. L. Smith, "History of Education in North Carolina," *Circ. of Inf.*, no. 2, 1888, U. S. Bureau of Education.

and all useful learning shall be duly encouraged and promoted in one or more universities."

Under the direction of the English church free schools were established in South Carolina¹ as early as 1712. The parish system was customary, and all classes were given the advantages of elementary education. In many cases slaves were included among those who shared these privileges. The organization of academies followed that of the parish schools, and a number of colleges also developed in response to the demand for higher education. In the constitution and character of its local government this colony approached the colonies of New England and Virginia.

Previous to the Revolutionary War Georgia had no plan for public education, and so calls for no consideration in this connection.

18. Common Origin and Character in Europe and America

Thus, while we find education in some form provided for in all the colonies, yet it remains true that the real founding of the public free schools of the United States was by the people of Massachusetts. As shown previously,² these early schools were based on principles which have become fundamental to our larger school system.

If we now compare the general conditions under which popular schools were established in Europe and America, the striking thing that appears to us is the common origin of the idea and the similarity in the character of the schools. All were established primarily for the gen-

¹ See B. James Ramage in *Johns Hopkins Studies*, vol. I, no. 12, "Local Government and Free Schools in South Carolina."

² Chap. II.

eral enlightenment of the people in regard to religious teachings, largely as a result of the Reformation; and nearly all passed gradually from the religious to the secular form as the needs of the entire social group, aside from considerations purely religious, became more evident.

Again, in the general character and purpose of public education throughout all the countries under consideration we find that two ideas were emphasized about equally as determining the aims and purposes of these "people's schools": the need of general intelligence on the part of citizens of all classes, and the need of careful training for some industrial pursuit.

19. Some Striking Differences

There were certain striking differences between Europe and the American colonies. The traditional hold of ecclesiasticism on education was much stronger in the older established order of things in Europe. Social stratification and the existence of caste affected the European situation, but were largely absent in the colonies. The government of the colonies, especially New England, was characteristically republican in form from the beginning. With these differences, due to traditional influences chiefly, we must put one characteristic which all the countries we have been considering held in common: they were all essentially democratic. Whatever differences have developed, therefore, in their various individual schemes of education must be considered as due to the influence of traditions concerning the social ordering of things, either in industries, religion, or government, or to a relative freedom from such traditions, as in the case of the colonies.

20. The United States as Type for this Study

The title of this volume suggests a broad treatment of the subject, one which might be considered as disregarding national limitations. After such a survey of the field as has just been given, however, it seems evident that the more recently organized national groups present features more nearly ideal for the purposes of this discussion. This would seem sufficient reason of itself, regardless of the one most powerful incentive of patriotic interest, why this volume should be devoted to a consideration of the United States as a field for the evolution of an ideal scheme for the administration of education by a democracy.

21. European Influence Upon America

We have seen that a number of countries were interested at the same time in the growth of the idea of free popular education. It was inevitable that they should have influenced each other at this time, and that in the groping for ways and means of accomplishing this radical and stupendously daring enterprise, no opportunity should have been lost for the exchange of views and experiences. It would be particularly the case in the New World that many Europeans should be profoundly interested in the experiment which was evolving out of the new life of the American colonies. The revolutionary period is thus found to be rich in evidences that the leaders of this country were kept fully alive to the educational developments going on in Europe.

England's influence had come through the traditions brought by the colonists from the mother country. So it was the logical thing that the grammar-school, as the means of preparing youth for college, and the college

itself, as the training place for the favored few who were to follow the professions of theology, law, or other literary pursuits, should have been patterned after the English schools of the same grades. Indeed, we are told that no inconsiderable number of New England colonists were college trained, and that the proportionate number of graduates of Oxford and Cambridge was fully equal to that of the mother country. But here English influence stops. There is nothing from the British Isles, unless, possibly, from Scotland, which could in any way account for that new and rapid development which characterized the colonial type of education, especially in New England.

Every school child is familiar with those peculiar conditions in regard to the government of the English colonies which so rapidly developed self-reliance and a spirit of independence among them. It seems probable enough that Douglass Campbell¹ has good ground for his belief in the Dutch ancestry of the New England common school. We can hardly believe that the stay of the Pilgrims at Leyden should have been entirely without results in this respect when we consider the intense activity of the Netherlands at that time and the great progress they had achieved in the development of such schools among themselves. We may well put with this the influence of the Dutch in New York, Pennsylvania, and Delaware through the schools established by them. John Locke is usually considered as representing the influence of the English upon the educational ideals of the colonists. It is possible, however, that even in his case there is an element of Dutch influence on account of his stay as an exile in Holland. This seems all the

¹ In his "The Puritan in Holland, England, and America," vol. II, pp. 338-342.

more probable if we connect with this the other fact of his familiarity with the work of Comenius.

The political experience of the Netherlands had certainly been such as to put these people in full sympathy with the American struggle for independence. From the time when a cordial welcome was extended to the fugitive band of Pilgrims from England until the time of our Civil War the Dutch people have ever evinced a fraternal interest in the welfare of the American Republic.

But it was during the Revolutionary period, when leading men of the colonies first began to face the possibility of independence and the consequent responsibilities in the organization of a new government suited to the character and ideals of a liberty-loving people, that the interest in popular education as a state function began to intensify. Men like Milton and Locke had already left their impress upon the minds of those to whom was to come the business of framing this new government. Aside from this, England's influence on the evolution of our educational system was at an end.

It was natural that in this crisis the colonies should be drawn to France, and that France should take a corresponding interest in the development of a new nation in a new world. The sending of Adams, Jefferson, and Franklin as a commission to the French Government bore other fruits than those of their diplomacy. Adams himself tells us¹ that it was largely through this influence by contact with Frenchmen that he was led to promote the establishment of the Boston Academy of Arts and Sciences; and that the same influence was a

¹ See "Life and Works of John Adams," edited by Charles Francis Adams, vol. IV, pp. 257-260. (Referred to by Hinsdale, U. S. Com. Report, 1892-3, vol. II, p. 1316.)

strong factor in the preparation of that part of the constitution of Massachusetts which marks the first legal establishment of free public schools in the United States. Thus in the act which made John Adams the father of our public-school system we see the influence of France; for it was he who incorporated this system into the fundamental law of the State which, as a colony, first gave it origin.

Through Jefferson French influence is seen in his plans for the organization of the University of Virginia. For while Jefferson, in accomplishing this task, sought ideas from all sources, yet the evidence seems clear that among all these influences that of the French scholars with whom he came in contact stands first. When we consider this in connection with Jefferson's interest in an educational system for his State, and later the influences which marked the establishment of the University of Michigan, we may readily comprehend something of the influence France has had upon the organization of our higher institutions of learning. Nor should we omit New York, especially in the peculiar organization of its university, which bears unmistakable evidences of the influence of Napoleon's idea of a university as established under his control of affairs in France.

Many French writers and travellers, as well as the French patriots who aided directly in the American Revolution through their writings and through personal contact with American leaders, exercised a profound influence upon the shaping of the new government and the ordering of its fundamental institutions. Taken all together the sum total of this influence which came to our educational system through the French people is large and important. It is all the more interesting as representing the ideals of the leaders in thought among

another great liberty-loving people whose traditional influences have restrained them, until quite recently, from any considerable advance toward realizing these ideals for themselves.

Among the earlier German influences affecting education in this country, and especially the order of its establishment as a system, are those of Comenius,¹ Pestalozzi, and Fellenberg. These influences have come to us partly through published writings on education, but more particularly by direct contact through study in German universities, especially at Göttingen, Halle, and Berlin. This influence has been very far-reaching and profound, and still continues so to the present day. The earlier influence grew out of the necessity, on the part of American youth who sought higher training, of making use of the great universities above referred to. This again was greatly augmented through the influence exerted by the report to the French Government, in 1837, of M. Victor Cousin on "Public Instruction in Prussia."

Thus, by the commingling of thought, the exchange of ideals and experiences among nations whose leading spirits are represented by men like Luther, Milton, Locke, Comenius, Pestalozzi, Rousseau, Franklin, Adams, Jefferson—all, in turn, tested and tempered by the philosophy of Aristotle, Plato, and Fichte—there came that conception of education as an essential prerequisite to a successful democracy that led to the establishment of free schools in the United States.

¹ Inseparably bound up, in this instance, with the Dutch influence.

PART TWO

SOCIETY'S PART IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION

CHAPTER IV

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF SCHOOLS: LAWS, AND UNITS OF CONTROL

We may now proceed to consider the steps taken in the establishment of schools in this country after the adoption of the federal constitution. As we have already seen,¹ no provision was made in that document for the organization of education. By common consent this function was permitted to pass to the States. We have found that when the colonies advanced to statehood, immediately after the Declaration of Independence, by the adoption of constitutions, several of them embodied in their fundamental laws a provision for schools. There were six of these, and among the first, as already cited,² was North Carolina. By reason of the fulness of statement embodied in her constitution, Massachusetts ranks first in New England and readily became a pattern not only for the rest of New England but for many of the States subsequently erected out of the vast Northwest Territory. The precedent established by North Carolina also became influential, similarly, as populations developed westward from the Southern colonies.

¹ Chap. II.

² See p. 36.

1. Significance of Constitutional Treatment of Education

The chief significance of the treatment given to education in the constitutional provisions of the States lies in the fact that this instrument is the one in which the people undertake, through their representatives, to express their ideals in regard to government and the institutions fundamental to its maintenance. In other words, it is a referendum vote; and whatever is most vital, as felt by the people, to the carrying into effect of the government thus set up, we naturally expect to find included in such a document. But the colonies were new at the business of constitution framing; and with no very elaborate type from which to copy, there was naturally great variety in the results. This variation was evident enough as regards educational provisions which seven of the original colonies omitted entirely. Subsequently, however, as they were reminded of this omission, especially by the grant of school lands by Congress in 1789, these States revised their constitutions, so that now the fundamental law of all the States recognizes, in some way, the necessity and importance of schools.

2. Nature and Extent of Such Legislation

It was in this manner that the first important legalizing acts in the establishment of school administration in the United States came about. Now thirty-three of the States specifically require that the legislature shall establish a system of free schools offering uniform and general educational advantages. Those States not specifically commanding such establishment do, by implication, indicate such a course to be the will and pur-

pose of the people. Nor do the States confine the proposed plan of popular education to the teaching of the rudiments in elementary schools. In nearly every case provision is also made for higher schools, for normal schools, and for college and university training, with frequent emphasis on training in agriculture and the mechanic arts.

In some of the States, notably of the North Central and Pacific groups, the constitutions undertake to define rather fully the scope of the educational system to be set up. Indiana, for instance, directs that the General Assembly shall provide for a "general system of education ascending in regular gradation from township schools to State University, wherein tuition shall be gratis and open to all." Here "township schools" indicate the prevalence of the township unit of organization of schools. California (1879) very explicitly defines the school system as including "primary and grammar schools, and such high schools, evening schools, normal schools, and technical schools as may be established by the Legislature, or by municipal and district authority." In North Dakota the provision is for a system of free schools "beginning with the primary and extending through all grades up to and including the normal and collegiate courses." This State also emphasizes moral education. The provision of the constitution of Utah with regard to the kinds of schools to be established is perhaps the most explicit of all. It defines the system of education for that State as including "kindergarten schools, common schools consisting of primary and grammar grades; high schools; an agricultural college, a university, and such other schools as the Legislature may establish."

3. Appearance of Local Influences

Some of the differences noticeable in State constitutions are readily seen to be the result of local influences. For instance, eight of the Southern States prescribe separate schools for whites and blacks. Going quite to the opposite extreme in this respect are Wyoming and Washington. The former forbids distinctions due to "race, sex, or color," while the latter declares that there shall be no distinction made "on account of race, color, caste, or sex."

The use of funds for denominational or sectarian schools is constitutionally prohibited by some States; Nevada prohibits sectarian instruction in public schools; Utah forbids the requirement of any "religious or partisan qualifications of teachers or pupils"; while Mississippi, on the other hand, forbids the exclusion of the Bible from the schools. The State of New York has gone even so far in practice as to subsidize certain church schools under regulations prescribed by the State.

Both Michigan and Georgia require that the instruction in free elementary schools be in the English language.

4. Other Notable Provisions in State Constitutions

Compulsory attendance laws are prescribed or permitted by South Carolina, Virginia, Missouri, Texas, Colorado, Idaho, and Oklahoma; while Massachusetts, Connecticut, Minnesota, and Missouri demand an educational qualification of electors. Most of the States make the school age a matter of constitutional legislation.

All State constitutions provide for the proper care and sale of school lands and for the investment and conservation of school funds. In the matter of taxation there is considerable variation. The prevailing plan is to

combine State, county, township, and district systems of taxation for the support of the common schools. In a few States taxation is limited almost entirely to the State. In others the county system seems to dominate. In a few cases, again, a per-capita tax is called for. Usually the State provides for all higher institutions, while high schools are scarcely mentioned among constitutional provisions.

In the matter of providing for officers of administration, State supervision is expressly mentioned in most constitutions. Not quite so commonly are State boards constituted; while in a few cases county supervision is authorized.

5. Influence of Historical Movements Noted

As one reads the constitutions¹ of some of the States, as they have been revised from time to time, there are seen marked evidences of the influence of historical movements in this country. The first and perhaps the most remarkable evidence of this kind is seen in the constitution of Massachusetts. Here are concentrated the ideals of the Pilgrims as they were evolved out of their colonial experiences. As we shall further note later on, these ideals have had a powerful influence upon State school systems throughout the North and West. Next to this should be considered the peculiar type of organization established in the Southern colonies. Out of the peculiar system of landholding established in those colonies we see particularly the development of the county unit of control which has prevailed until now. While this does not now appear so plainly in the constitutions of the States erected out of these Southern

¹ For a summary of constitutional provisions regarding education down to 1894, see U. S. Com. Report, 1892-3, vol. II, pp. 1312-1414.

colonies, yet it was there essentially from the beginning although, perhaps, not directly expressed in relation to education.

The first real innovation came with the federal land grants having their inception in the Ordinance of 1787. This is readily seen in the emphasis given in subsequent constitutions of new States erected out of the Northwest Territory and later out of the Louisiana Purchase, the Mexican lands, and Texas. These provisions all refer especially to methods of caring for the school lands and the revenues derived therefrom.

The results of the Civil War and of the reconstruction period on the South are especially noticeable. South Carolina, for instance, in the constitution of 1868, says that "all the public schools, colleges, and universities of the State, supported in whole or part by the public funds, shall be free and open to all the children and youths of the State, without regard to race or color." It is needless to say that this could not long be enforced. In the constitution of that State, adopted in 1895, we read: "Separate schools shall be provided for children of the white and colored races, and no child of either race shall ever be permitted to attend a school provided for children of the other race."

6. Tendency Toward Centralized Control

But perhaps the most interesting and important of these historical influences is seen in the reaction which appears from the strongly decentralized type of educational administration which characterized the earlier constitutions toward a more strongly centralized control of schools. In the constitutions of those States of the Central West which were admitted in the first quarter or half of the nineteenth century the prevailing type of

administrative organization is strongly decentralized. On the other hand, Virginia, the home of Jefferson, in its constitution enacted in 1869, and again still more emphatically in the constitution of 1902¹ provides for strong centralized control in matters of education. Indiana, Minnesota, and California have manifested a similar reactionary tendency toward centralized control; while New York has gone to the extreme, practically, of what would seem to be feasible to a republican State.

7. Constitutions Mark Evolution of Conception of Democracy

Thus, in a positive though often fragmentary or incomplete way, the States have made the establishment of schools and the setting up of educational systems a part of their fundamental laws. And here again do we find in the revisions of constitutions, which in some of the States have been frequent, another evidence of the evolution, in the minds of the people, of a truer conception of democracy and its needs. It would be easy to construct, out of these various State documents, by piecing together educational provisions selected from them, a "model constitution" affecting the organization and administration of schools; but such an instrument would have little meaning or value. Gradually the people are getting a clearer vision of what is required, and, if not through their constitutional conventions, then by means of legislative enactment, they are moulding and perfecting the mechanism of this greatest of all instruments in the hands of an enlightened popular government.

¹ See the present constitution of Virginia.

8. Legislatures Have Supplemented Constitutional Provisions

It frequently happens that in a State where little of a definite nature is said in the constitution in regard to education there will be found to exist one of the most complete systems of all for which provision has been made by the legislature, frequently through the leadership of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction or the State Board of Education. It is this law-created mechanism which is the basis for the administration of education. Only upon the clear and specific sanctions thus given by society can there be any effective procedure in an enterprise involving such cost and so many varying interests as does a system of public schools.

Speaking in the abstract, it may be considered cause for regret that all the States, and even the nation, have not embodied in the supreme law a clear and definite statement of the chief things to be done in the interests of free popular education. It still remains true, however, that both in these primary enactments and in the body of laws governing schools there are strong and cheering evidences of a steady forward movement in the evolution of this social institution and its adjustment to the conditions under which it must operate.

Having thus prepared ourselves, through this brief historical survey, for a more sympathetic perception and understanding of the ideals and purposes that have been operative until now in the establishment of our educational system, let us proceed to analyze more minutely this administrative structure as it appears in the legislative acts, both general and specific, by means of which it has been reared.

9. Units of Control Under Religious Influences

From our earliest knowledge of the Germanic races, or of the history of any race, for that matter, a fundamental aspect of social control has appeared in the unit of territory as supporting a given or possible population over which that control may extend. So, when it comes to the setting up of various legal sanctions in regard to the dissemination of education among a people, the first problem to consider is that of educational units of territory. The early connection of education with religion, and its dependence upon the church for the administrative function, naturally had much to do with the order of division into units of administration. The congregation was the group to which the individual church ministered, and the parish was its territory. Naturally, the administration of education would be similarly limited. Likewise when the schools passed to the secular form the units of territory which served for the administering of law and of justice also formed the basis for limiting the territorial extent of the service rendered by a single school.

In most European countries we have seen that the religious and secular functions of the school have, in many cases, remained parallel and co-operative in their administration. In the colonies this was also true at first; but later, with complete secularization of education, came a change. The strong decentralizing influences at work at the close of the eighteenth and beginning of the nineteenth centuries had a marked effect on the organization of the schools. It was then that the idea of the school district as the local administrative unit became established in our system.

10. Development of City Units

Another factor which had to do with the determination of administrative units in education was the development of popular education in cities. We have found that very early in the history of European schools this factor became apparent as cities began to insist on a form of education suited to the demands of commercial and other industries rapidly developing in these centres of population. As a result, the city and town have played a very important part in determining their own types of organization in matters educational.

11. Principles Involved

In all of this the primary principle involved has been *the generally convenient and equitable limit of service and attendance for the individual school centre*. Out of this, as a fundamental cause, other conditions as to territorial units have been gradually evolved. The idea of such a limitation of service had developed long before in connection with other interests. It was the simple logic of social development that this idea should be transferred in the case of the newer institution.

Another principle involved in the establishment of definite territorial units, and one corollary to that of service, is suggested by Massachusetts in the ordinance of 1647 in which it is said of those who are set aside to teach that their "*wages shall be paid either by the parents or masters of such children (of the township), or by the inhabitants in general, by way of supply, as the major part of those that order the prudentials of the town shall appoint.*" Thus was introduced the principle of public maintenance "by the inhabitants in general" of the township, this being the district to which

the school was then expected to minister. The idea that general intelligence was a direct gain to the whole social group, and well worth paying for as a common and indispensable service, had not yet developed fully in the minds of the colonists. But the policy thus set up has prevailed; and the chief burden of maintenance of common schools throughout the Northern States has remained with the local district or township unit until now.

This principle and the policy which has thus become traditional present one of the largest problems, from society's standpoint, in the administration of education. A little further on a fuller consideration will be given to this problem of maintenance of the educational system.

A third principle should also be mentioned here as having great significance in determining the chief unit of administrative control in education. This principle did not become strongly apparent until Revolutionary times, and has since been the subject of much debate, and especially in recent years. This is the principle of *popular participation in the management as well as in the maintenance of the common schools*. We have referred to the decentralizing movement observable in school legislation.¹ This is one of the manifestations, in the concrete, of the popular idea of democracy. There is in this something of the idea of Horace Mann when he said: "The education of the whole people, in a republican government, can never be obtained without the consent of the whole people."² Yet Horace Mann himself denounced the idea of local control by districts as wasteful and inefficient. We are coming, as a people, to understand that the stability and efficiency of republican institutions must depend more largely upon powers

¹ See p. 49.

² Quoted on p. 18.

delegated and at the same time guarded by explicit constitutional and legislative limitations. The participation of the people is not to be less but different. It is to be that of a people grown intelligent enough to think clearly as to the relation of the men selected as their representatives to the principles and laws for which all the people stand and which embody those sanctions essential to the healthful operation and growth of institutions truly democratic. We are coming to see more and more that the closely related personal interests of a small local group will not admit of the judicial attitude of mind on the part of those in authority so fundamentally essential to successful and efficient administration of any body of laws.

12. Reasons for Tendency Toward Centralized Control

Thus considered, we may yet come to realize that the participation of all the people, in the sense that the dominant thought of all the people shall become effective, may be just as truly and more certainly secured through wise delegation of authority to experts than through continuous direct control by means of the direct election of local boards of control. One of the interesting manifestations of this idea is seen in the movement for the commission form of government in cities.

From what has already been said about the genesis of territorial units in educational administration it becomes evident that development of control in this respect has been from the local toward the general in this country; and this in spite of the fact that educational ideals have usually been passed down in just the opposite way. In our consideration of administrative control we shall follow the order of the historical evolution

of units and begin with the district. At first the district unit in this country was either the parish, the county, or the town. As population grew and schools multiplied the parish or town or county came to have several schools. These communities where schools were established were at first more or less isolated groups in the larger units. This fact, together with the tendency toward local control to which we have already referred, led to the division of parish or town or county into districts centring about the schools outside of the cities. Even as cities grew, in some cases, the district idea prevailed either wholly or in part. Where the prevalence was complete entirely separate districts were organized about distinct school centres. In other cities the division held only in part, resulting in "ward" schools and frequently in a board made up of "ward" representatives. In still other instances the entire city is considered the district containing many schools open, under certain restrictions, to the choice of the people.¹

13. Prevalence of Local District Control

The principle involved in district control, whether the district be large or small, is that the school is to be an institution that is local in both government and maintenance.² The idea is a very popular one. People may have their own school as they want it. They provide their own grounds and building, fix the programme of

¹ Oakland, Cal., is an interesting illustration. Here pupils go to the school of their preference. But when a school is full the pupils farthest away from the school must seek admittance at the next best school of their choice where there is still room for them. This plan relieves the board and superintendent of all responsibility as to transfers on account of dissatisfaction with a school.

² Not true in cases of cities, although the idea sometimes remains in the form of local or district representation on the city board.

studies, employ the teachers—all with the idea in view of trying to satisfy their own ideals of what a school should be. The plan throughout the States in this country shows a striking similarity of practice. There is a local board, ordinarily of three trustees or directors, who levy taxes, build schoolhouses, furnish supplies, employ teachers, select or approve text-books, and determine the course of instruction and rules governing the school. In some of the States these powers and duties are modified, to a greater or less degree, by authority reserved by law to officers of the township, county, or State.

The local district thus organized separately for the conduct of schools prevails in one form or another in the States west of the Alleghanies, except in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Tennessee,¹ and Louisiana. At one time its prevalence was general, even throughout New England, but this condition has since been changed. Connecticut alone now continues the district plan, but that only in part, as permissive. Among the Western States the laws of Iowa, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and North and South Dakota make the township system permissive.

14. Changed Conditions Call for Consolidation

It is easy to see how, in pioneer days, when people were settled in groups more or less isolated, the district plan should be the convenient one for the organization of schools. But with the growth of population the necessity for it, at least, has ceased to exist. Aside from the difficulty already mentioned of our inability to get that judicial attitude in local control so essential to efficient administration, the utter inadequacy of such a

¹ In this State the districts of the county have advisory boards.

system in securing anything like equal advantages educationally in all communities has been demonstrated over and over again. The inequalities in adjoining districts of some of the States where local or district control prevails are such as seriously to endanger the interests of neighboring communities, to reduce, relatively, the value of farm lands, and to make it difficult for non-resident owners of farms to secure desirable tenants for their lands.

Then, again, as industrial and social conditions change the school population becomes very small in many districts. Under the control of boards having supervision of larger units these small schools might readily be consolidated, thus greatly economizing in the aggregate cost of the schools of such larger unit. The distributable funds would thus be more effectively applied also, as the combined amounts would make possible better school facilities for all.

Of course, we must bear in mind that the training in self-government which this local control of schools has brought about has been a very important factor in developing true ideals of democracy; but in this day of the daily press, the magazine, rural delivery of mails, and all forms of easy and direct communication the need of such instrumentalities in the training of popular opinion has largely disappeared. On the other hand, the increasing demands upon our schools as a result of our rapid development in industries and in population make it imperative that we practise strict economy in their organization. We have already seen that this idea of the local unit of control grew out of conditions existing at an earlier time. There is no good reason why, as conditions change, there should not be complete readjustment, from time to time, in order to adapt the control to

changing requirements due to the evolution of our social institutions and its effect on education.

15. The District Tested by the Three Principles

Let us apply the three principles previously stated¹ as leading to the determination of the unit of control. This may aid us in judging more clearly the correctness of the claims for the continuance of the district plan. As a convenient limit of service and attendance the district is and doubtless will remain most desirable in many ways, especially as it concerns elementary education. But districting for purposes of attendance may readily be entirely independent of the area of control, as in the case of cities. Furthermore, transfers are often desirable and would be possible under an administration including more than the one school unit. It frequently occurs in rural communities that in particular cases much better conditions for regular attendance might be arranged than to go to the school centre of a given district. The possibility of consolidation and transportation of pupils further affects this same argument. It is evident, therefore, that even in the light of this first and most directly applicable principle the plea for district control is scarcely tenable.

The case is still more unfavorable to the district plan when we apply the principle of public maintenance by the inhabitants in general. First there is the township fund arising from the sale of school lands; then there are other funds produced from various sources, as designated in the laws of the States, and especially as a result of direct State appropriations, which are common among the States. These facts of themselves are sufficient ground for a control from without the district; for in

¹ Pp. 53-54.

them we give recognition to the very fundamental fact that schools are maintained by the public in general for the good of the entire social group and not for the limited number who happen to reside to-day in a given district. The evolution of our industrial methods makes a considerable portion of our population migratory in character rather than permanent dwellers in a given community. This in itself makes each member of the social group about equally interested in the educational well-being of all the other members regardless of any present relationship to a particular locality.

The third principle of popular participation is, as has already been pointed out, the strongest reason of all for maintaining the local organization and control represented by the district system. We have already shown, however, the manner in which this same ideal of participation may be attained through the delegation of certain rights, through representation, to the larger units of population.

16. The Township Unit

The town or township has played a very important part in educational administration in the United States. The beginning of this influence is associated with the town meeting of New England, although its extension throughout the country has been in forms varying considerably from the New England type. In the latter case the organization is a much closer one and the town has held a more important significance politically.¹ As we have seen, the township was for a time superseded in New England by the district for the purpose of local school government; but later the town system has been

¹ See Fairlie, "Local Government in Counties, Towns, and Villages," The Century Co., New York, 1906, pp. 160-161.

completely restored in four of the States and partially in the other two. In these States, therefore, this unit becomes the basis for the local administration of schools which is in the hands of a school committee. This committee levies the local tax, builds schoolhouses, employs teachers, and makes rules and regulations governing the schools of the town. In case it is found desirable a superintendent may also be employed.

The following summary of the advantages of the New England system as typified in Massachusetts is given by Dean T. M. Balliet, of New York City University:¹

“1. Uniformity of text-books. 2. The hiring of teachers by the town committee, which is less influenced by local sentiment than a district committee or a prudential committeeman would be. 3. The erecting of better schoolhouses. When the town as a whole must pay for the erecting of a schoolhouse, the very jealousy which the district system develops prompts people to demand better schoolhouses than they themselves would be willing to pay for. In most towns there is a village in which most of the taxable property is found. The rural sections of the town, therefore, benefit by voting a higher tax for schoolhouses by which the people of the village must contribute to the cost of schoolhouses in the rural districts. 4. Supervision of schools by experts is made possible. While the rural schools of Massachusetts up to 1888 had poorer supervision than the schools of the Middle States and many of the Western States, where county supervision has prevailed for many years, since 1888 there has been developed in Massachusetts a system of town supervision which is probably the best system of supervision of rural schools in the country. Under this system two or three towns which are

¹ Bulletin No. 33, New York State Educational Department, p. 37.

too poor individually to pay a superintendent may combine and engage a superintendent in common. All towns also receive some aid from the State to make up the salary of the superintendent. This law was originally permissive; in 1892 it was made compulsory. As early as 1869 a law was passed permitting towns to pay for the transportation of pupils from thinly settled sections to the more densely settled sections. In this way provision was made for the gradual concentration of the schools of thinly settled towns. This law was a necessary accompaniment to the later law abolishing the district system and paved the way for the final abolition."

In some of the Central and West Central States the township organization is somewhat similar to that of New England, although there is nowhere found the same political importance attaching to this unit.¹ The system is general in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Indiana, and permissive in Iowa, the upper peninsula of Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and North and South Dakota. In all these cases the township control of schools is vested in a board, usually of three, known as directors or trustees. In Indiana one trustee serves alone.

17. Township Units Tested

If we again apply our three principles as tests we shall obtain results somewhat more satisfactory. The controlling body is more removed, as Dean Balliet has shown, from the influence of local prejudice. The service of the school is likely to be improved. This unit conforms more closely to the general plan for the distribution of funds, as recognized by the States and also by the federal appropriation of lands. Through it, also,

¹ Fairlie, *op. cit.*, pp. 182-85.

the State receives statistical reports concerning schools. At the same time the unit is not so large but that the people may participate in such matters of local interest as are really important with regard to the essentials of a good school.

In some cases where there is no regular township organization the civil township is recognized as a unit for the organization and administration of high schools. Where this is true a separate board is usually elected which has control over the township school with powers and duties similar to those of the district. Such a provision is found in the laws of Illinois. This provision is usually optional and subject to a vote by the people of the township. The plan works well in Illinois, and some of the strongest and most efficient high schools in the State have thus been established. A similar plan is in operation in California under the union high school law. Here, also, it has proven a great success. The California plan is, perhaps, the most highly perfected of all, since all non-high-school territory is required to contribute enough to pay the tuition in these union high schools of all pupils from such territory as desire to attend high school. Thus in California the high school is a universally free school.

The chief difficulty in putting this plan in operation is found in the ultra-conservative attitude of the holders of farm lands, especially of the non-resident class, with reference to the added tax entailed by such a plan. In many instances this results in an absolute repudiation of the fundamental American idea that the school should be free to all classes and as a common charge upon all property or other sources of taxation which a State may designate. In this respect conditions are much worse in a State like Illinois than in California, for the reason

that in the latter State much of the population is recent, and tradition has not gained so strong a hold upon the leaders of public sentiment.

In Indiana the idea of the township school as a means chiefly of supplying high-school privileges to rural districts has prevailed. A large number of these rural high schools have been established, many of them on a good working basis. But most of them are small and incapable of becoming the strong, fully organized schools needed in order to offer equal values in education to all classes and conditions.

The idea of the township as a unit developed in New England, where township meant a settlement of people about a common centre or village. In the West, under the congressional survey, a township means a geometrical figure not necessarily related to population and therefore to schools needed in a given case. It is rather curious that this fact has so long escaped attention in the campaigns that have been made in various States of the West for the establishment of the township unit of control in administering schools. The union-district idea, noticeable in several sections, but most successfully used in California, marks the first complete breaking away from the mathematical township and returning to the idea of centres of population as a basis for such co-operative control and support of schools. More recent legislation in Illinois, in 1911, has produced a great change in conditions and possibilities in that State. Under this law the number of union-district (township) high schools has increased more than fifty per cent in two years.

18. The City as a Unit of Control

The city as a unit follows the same general plan for the purposes of education as does a township.¹ There is a central board, usually much larger than that of the township, having the direction of schools, including the levying of taxes, the building and equipment of school-houses, the selection of text-books and other supplies, the employment of teachers and supervisors, and in many cases also the certification of teachers. In cases where cities still remain divided into separate and independent districts the general plan of organization is about the same for the separate district as for the entire city in unified city systems. The denser population of cities and the peculiar interests which centre there make it imperative that they have a certain autonomy in the administration of schools. This point is very generally conceded in the organization of city schools. There are a few cases, however, where the district for control of large city systems includes the entire county. Baltimore, Mobile, San Francisco are illustrations.

19. County Units

The county,² like the township, is treated quite differently in its relation to school administration in different sections of the country. In some of the States of the South and Far West it is made the local unit for ad-

¹ See F. J. Goodnow, "City Government in the United States," The Century Co., New York, 1904, pp. 262-271. Also Dutton and Snedden, "Administration of Public Education in the United States," New York, 1908, pp. 120-143.

² Fairlie, *op. cit.*, pp. 187-199. Also Dutton and Snedden, *op. cit.*, pp. 75-85. See also Illinois Educational Com., Final Report, 1909, pp. 55-96.

ministrative purposes. Such States are California, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, North Carolina, Oregon, South Carolina, Tennessee. In most of these cases a county board has general charge of school affairs, and trustees, directors, or supervisors of the schools report to this board, and in some cases receive full instruction from them as to the local conduct of schools.

Besides the above States, all of which have some form of county supervision, thirty-one other States recognize the county unit in administration by providing for county supervision, while twenty others have some form of county board of education. Through the Central West, especially, the office of county superintendent usually carries with it very important powers and duties. He inspects schools; examines and frequently is the sole authority for certificating and revoking certificates of teachers; requires reports of township officials; determines disputes in regard to district boundaries, etc.; holds teachers' institutes; apportions State funds to the schools. He is elected to office by the people or chosen by the county board or appointed by the State board of education.

In a few States the county is made a unit for the establishment of high schools, usually at the option of the people, or for the establishment of special funds for aid to high schools. In some of the Southern States strong county high schools are developing under the fostering care of the General Education Board. As has been suggested in the preceding paragraph, the county is also made one of the important units for the training of teachers in service through the county institute.

In some of the States county funds have been established the income from which is made distributable for

school purposes, as in the case of townships and the State funds. This plan is in operation in Nebraska and Kansas.

20. The Same Tests Applied to the County Unit

When we apply the principles by which we have tested the district plan the county unit seems to meet the idea of convenience in service only in the case of sparsely settled sections, and then only for the establishment of more advanced education, as in the case of county high schools. In the matter of maintenance, aside from certain functions of co-operation with the State, this interest in counties is also practically limited to such high schools and teachers' institutes as have been already mentioned. In a similar manner participation in control is limited except as powers and duties are delegated to the county superintendent and to the county board of education. It is undoubtedly true that in these latter functions county administration is destined to advance in importance. The county board should readily become a very important factor in the carrying forward of our educational development. In the first place, such a board is needed for the selection of the county superintendent. It should also provide for the districting of the county for high-school purposes, and might well have authority to take the initiative in the establishment of additional high schools when needed, so that all children of proper age might have the advantages of free high-school education. Such boards might also readily become the agents for distributing State funds, where granted, for aid to specific types of education.

21. The State Considered as a Unit

As a unit of school administration that of the State¹ presents some very interesting features. We have already found that most of the constitutions provide for some form of State supervision. Under the legislative enactments of States all make provision for supervision, and all but one, Delaware, provide for an executive school officer known in general as the superintendent of education or instruction. The first State to make such provision was New York, in 1812, and the first superintendent under that provision was Gideon Hawley, elected in 1813.

Other States have followed until in one way or another all are included. In Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Delaware the secretary of the State board of education is the executive and supervisory officer. In the last-named State this secretary is the auditor who acts *ex officio*. In New York, New Jersey, and some other States the title is that of commissioner, variously phrased as of education or of public schools.

The powers and duties of this office vary greatly in different States. In general they may be said to be either advisory and judicial or generally administrative. These functions are most extensive in New York, where the commissioner of education has large discretion and control. From this the character of the office dwindles to practically an advisory function coupled with clerical and statistical duties. In most of the States the influence of this official upon educational ideals and standards and upon their expression in legislation has been far-reaching and profound.

¹ See Fairlie, *op. cit.*, pp. 215-224. Also Dutton and Snedden, *op. cit.*, pp. 55-72. Also Illinois Educational Com., *op. cit.*, pp. 15-54.

Among the most important administrative functions assigned to the State superintendent are: the supervision of school officials; the apportionment of school funds; the issuing and revoking of State teachers' certificates; the holding of conventions of county and city superintendents; the making of an annual or biennial report; a general stimulative supervision of the whole system of schools. He is also frequently made an *ex-officio* member of boards of control of State educational institutions.

Another very important administrative provision for State systems of education is that of a State board of education. Thirty-three of the States already have some such provision, and several other States are considering the matter. These boards vary considerably as to their composition, terms of office, and powers and duties. In general their function is to support and co-operate with the superintendent in (1) certifying teachers, (2) supervising schools, (3) supervising and appointing subordinate or local school officials, (4) preparing and issuing uniform courses of study. In some cases they are called upon to apportion funds for special aid to public schools. In a few instances the State board appoints the superintendent.

The perfect type for such a board seems not, as yet, to have been evolved. Doubtless, differences will always be found necessary, or at least desirable, in different localities. But the need of such an instrumentality in the managing of school systems seems to be thoroughly established.

In this connection may be mentioned those special boards, already alluded to, which have the direction of affairs for State educational institutions, such as normal schools, colleges, and universities. Here, again, great va-

riety of treatment occurs. In some cases, perhaps more commonly, each separate institution has its governing board of trustees, regents, or overseers. In other cases, where there are several institutions of a kind, such as normal schools, these may all be placed under one board, as in Minnesota. Still another disposition of the matter is that of Iowa and Kansas, where all the different institutions—normal school, college, and university—are placed under one and the same board of control.

Here we are facing a problem of administration which is as yet not clearly defined. Just what is to be the ultimate relation of such State institutions and of all these to the State department of education is a matter for careful consideration.

22. National Control and Influence

Under present conditions there is little beyond the separate States which could be said to represent a nationwide unit of control. The Bureau of Education and the Departments of State and the Interior represent all that is of a supervisory character. The Military Academy at West Point, with the auxiliary service and post schools, and the Naval School at Annapolis, the Naval War College of Rhode Island, and the naval training stations of Rhode Island, the Great Lakes, and California represent a fairly national type of educational administration. The various commissioners having in charge the education of the Indians and education in Porto Rico and the Philippines also come very near to representing the same thing. But there is nothing, unless it be military training, which can in any sense be considered a national system from the standpoint of administrative control. It is true that the District of Columbia, including the city of Washington, is under national control, as a part

of the national domain, both as to legislation for and administration of education. But this can in no sense be considered a national system.

Probably at no point has the National Government come so near to the exercise of definite control over educational interests in States as in the case of the more recent subsidies granted to State institutions in aid of agricultural education. In this instance a definite supervision is exercised. Perhaps it is not putting it too strongly to say that the tendency is definitely toward such federal supervision in as far as the character and purpose of the aid granted by Congress seem to require.

CHAPTER V

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF SCHOOLS (CONTINUED).

TYPES OF SCHOOLS SET UP

We may pass, then, to the system and types of schools set up, either separately or co-operatively, by the various units of control which we have described. Before proceeding directly to an analysis of these types, and of such system as they may represent when considered as a whole, let us establish in our minds, as far as may be done at this time, those principles upon which a system of education in a democracy may be said to rest and which, therefore, will furnish the criteria by which to measure and test the various elements in the present situation.

1. Principles by Which We May Measure and Test Our School System

All men who have spoken authoritatively upon the subject have agreed as to what may readily be set down as first among these principles: the intelligence of the people of a democracy must be sufficient to insure a wise direction of the government and of the economic affairs of society under such laws and rules of conduct as the people, through their representatives or by direct choice, may impose. Such intelligence involves not only knowledge of principles, of men, and of institutions, but also that wisdom for the direction of personal conduct which we have in mind when we speak of morality. It includes

not only this wisdom and knowledge, but also that industrial intelligence and skill necessary to the efficient conduct of the ordinary business of life in a large social group.

After centuries of experience, coming down through many changes in national ideals and in the mechanism of government, the school has been set up and recognized as the only institution which society may maintain at public expense and solely for the purpose of insuring, among all classes, that intelligence, wisdom, and skill thus agreed upon as necessary to the security and perpetuity of government in a democracy. The second principle involved is therefore expressed in the aim of education as thus provided by society. This aim may be stated as being the formal effort of society to secure in its members the greatest degree of efficiency in intellect, in morals, and in industrial skill and intelligence, both individually and collectively, of which these members are capable.

Schools, to be successful, need to be of different types. They should adapt themselves to the different stages of development, the varying tastes and inclinations of individuals, as well as the various social needs in the way of specially trained experts in different departments of life. This gives us a third principle: the schools established by society, in order to conform to the social aim of education, should represent such variety of type as, on the one hand, to appeal to different stages of development and to different capacities of individuals, and, on the other hand, to meet the need of society for specially trained experts.

In doing this society is confronted by certain limitations. The resources available for this work are limited. There is also a time limit, both because society must

continue its institutional existence, which we have seen to be, in the case of a democracy, dependent upon general intelligence, wisdom, and skill, and because the time which the individual may give to the process of being educated is also limited. Another vitally important principle involved is that of the conservation of the health of children and youth. To succeed in the educative process there is need of the utmost freedom from both chronic ailments and the prevailing contagions of this period of life. The fourth principle, therefore, is that economic treatment of the problem of general education with reference to the above-mentioned conditions which is necessary to its ultimate success.

At the same time, several general sociological conditions are to be considered, any one of which might stand in the way of efficiency on the part of the schools if the organization of education did not look to the prevention of such a result. Among these is the probable failure of part of the social group, if left to themselves, in requiring the young to take advantage of the opportunities offered for education. Such failure may arise either on account of economic pressure or because of a too low estimate of the value and necessity of education when left to individual standards of judgment. This gives us a basis for the statement of a fifth principle, which is that society must require of such delinquents, by legal compulsion, that their children be kept in school.

Stated in brief, the five leading principles by which we may test the educational system thus far established are:

1. *Intelligence, skill, and right conduct on the part of a people, subject to certain individual limitations, are fundamentally essential in a democracy.*

2. *It is the aim of society, through the public school as a*

special instrumentality, to insure in all the people the greatest degree of efficiency, physically, intellectually, morally, and industrially, of which they are individually and collectively capable.

3. Schools, to be efficient, must be varied in type to the end that they may provide for individual differences in capacity and in stages of development and also for the varied needs of society in the way of trained service.

4. The situation demands the most economic treatment of the problem of education, financially, in the matter of time, and also in health conditions, that is consistent with its most effective administration.

5. In order to insure the general effectiveness of such a system society must, by legal compulsion if necessary, see to it that parents keep their children in school long enough to enable them, within the range of their capabilities, to get at least the minimum of knowledge, wisdom, and skill necessary to the highest good of the individual and the well-being of the State.

2. Components of Our National System of Education

In its main features the system which has grown up throughout the States under the control scheme which we have already reviewed is homogeneous enough to be considered national. It includes practically all known varieties of school, such as kindergarten, elementary school, high school, industrial schools which comprise schools of agriculture and trade-schools; continuation schools, including night-schools; vacation-schools, manual training-schools, nautical schools, military schools, technical schools, normal schools, colleges, and universities. There are also schools maintained at public expense for the education of defectives, such as

the deaf, blind, and feeble-minded; and also for delinquents there are industrial reform schools.

3. Kindergartens and Elementary Schools

The kindergarten occurs chiefly in the cities. It is organized on the basis of Froebel's "gift's," with songs and plays, and is usually open to children from three to six years old. About four hundred cities, in 1909-10, reported kindergartens, for which about six thousand teachers were employed. The number of these schools seems to be increasing, and an aggressive campaign for the establishment of kindergartens has been going on in recent years. In 1909 was incorporated the National Association for the Promotion of Kindergarten Education. This organization will urge kindergarten legislation and distribute literature on the subject.

The elementary school is the most commonly distributed of all types and is the first school which the vast majority of children attend. In this type education may therefore be said to have become universal. The minimum school age is five to six years, and the standard length of the course is eight years, thus permitting the child to finish normally at fourteen. There are some variations from this both ways. In New England, New York, and some other cases more isolated the period is nine years, while in the case of a few cities it is only seven. A more recent and very interesting variation from the customary extent of this period is the six-year elementary plan followed by an intermediate period of three or four years. Such a plan is now in operation in Los Angeles, Cal., and in Gary, Ind. The length of the school year varies greatly. The general average for the United States in 1908-9¹ was 155.3 days. The

¹ For statistics, see U. S. Com. Report, 1910, vol. II.

longest year was in Rhode Island, 194 days, and the shortest in South Carolina, 98 days.

About 480,000 teachers are employed in the elementary schools of the United States. A very large percentage of these are women, and the tenure of service is short. Most of them enter upon the work without any special preparation in the way of professional training. What skill they acquire in presentation and management they must get in service.

4. High Schools

The public high school is the secondary school of this system. It includes the four years succeeding the elementary school, or normally from about fourteen to eighteen years of age. This would be seen to vary under such plans as those cited above. According to the reports of 1909-10¹ there were 10,213 high schools, employing 41,667 teachers, of whom 18,890 were men and 22,777 women. The total enrollment in these high schools was 915,061, of which 398,525 were boys and 516,536 girls. Of the total number of high schools 6,421 report four-year courses. These four-year high schools enroll over 88 per cent of the secondary students. Of the total number of students for 1909-10, 12.17 per cent graduated, and of these graduates about one third, or 4.6 per cent of all, prepared for college.

5. Statistical Summary

Taking both elementary and high schools together, the public schools enrolled 72.22 per cent of the total school population in 1908-9 as against 61.45 per cent in 1870-1. The total number of teachers employed was 506,453, of which 108,300 were men and 398,153 women. This

¹ See U. S. Com. Report, 1910, vol. II, p. 1131.

makes the per cent of men teachers 21.4. The average monthly wages of these teachers was \$57. For men it was \$63.39 and for women \$50.08. The total expenditures for the same year for public schools were \$401,397,747, of which \$237,013,913 was for salaries of teachers and superintendents.

6. Higher Education

Of the 602 universities, colleges, and technological schools of college rank reporting in 1910, 89 are controlled by States or municipalities. There were enrolled in the collegiate departments of these 89 institutions, 47,492 men and 16,724 women, or a total of 64,216. In the graduate departments were enrolled 2,427 men and 983 women, or a total of 3,410. This makes a grand total of 67,626 enrolled. These institutions are distributed as follows: 37 States and 1 city (Cincinnati) support universities; 5 States and 2 cities (New York and Philadelphia) provide colleges; 19 States have separate colleges of agriculture or of agriculture and mechanic arts; there are 4 State schools of mines and 4 State technological schools of college grade. South Carolina and Virginia each supports a military school of college rank, while Delaware and North Carolina have colleges for colored students, that in the latter State being a college of agriculture and mechanic arts. A number of States make the agricultural college a part of the State university. These were not enumerated in the 19 given above. In the case of Ohio 3 institutions are designated as universities, while in the case of Virginia there are 3 State colleges, including William and Mary's College, in addition to the university and military institute. In Mississippi 2 colleges of agriculture are maintained by the State.

It thus becomes evident that the country at large

and the Federal Government, through its land-grant policy and its appropriation of funds for training and experimenting in agriculture, are thoroughly committed to the idea of higher education as a function of the State. In many of the States this ideal of public education manifests itself not only in the lines of agriculture and engineering, but also in the study of civic and industrial problems, in law, medicine, public sanitation, and education, as well as in arts, letters, and philosophy.

7. Industrial Education

Under industrial education we may group all those schools, not of college rank, by means of which training is offered, at public expense, in trades, in agriculture, and in domestic arts and sciences. According to the reports given¹ there are about forty-nine such institutions in the United States, with a tendency to rapidly increase the number. Of these the agricultural type predominates, with a few trade-schools and one nautical school. Continuation schools² are a form of trade-school usually conducted at night, or if conducted in the daytime the daily programme is arranged so as to permit a division of time between work and study hours, for those who attend. There are also about thirty-three manual-training and technical high schools under public control, as reported for the same year. These schools offer a general education with manual training as one of the principal exercises. In a few cases only do these schools undertake any work which may be classed strictly as vocational.

Besides these, six commercial high schools, together

¹ U. S. Com. Report, 1910, vol. II, pp. 1219-32.

² See under "Nomenclature," U. S. Com. Report, 1910, vol. I, pp. 94-96.

with commercial departments in other high schools, enrolled a total of 81,249 pupils, over one-half of the number being in the North Atlantic division and about 81.5 per cent in the North Atlantic and North Central divisions.

8. Normal Schools

There were in the United States, in 1910, 196 public normal schools,¹ enrolling 79,546 students, or an average of about 406 per school. At the same time 694 public high schools offering professional courses for teachers enrolled in these courses 13,641 students, thus making a total of 93,187 pursuing teachers' professional courses in public normal schools and high schools.

All but five of the States support one or more normal schools as distinct institutions. Delaware has no State normal school, but a teachers' course is offered in the State College for Colored Students. Nevada combines this function with the department of education of the State university, while Utah and Wyoming make the normal school a department of the university. Tennessee has no State normal school, strictly speaking, although the State contributes regularly to the support of Peabody College for Teachers.

Besides the State normal schools, there are a number of normal schools, teachers' training-schools, and teachers' colleges supported by municipalities, as in the cases of Philadelphia, Cleveland, Chicago, New York, and Saint Louis. The tendency of city systems seems to look to the elimination of the local training-school or teachers' college in order that a wider field may be had from which to recuperate the teaching ranks. There is an inclination at the present time also to change the

¹ U. S. Com. Report, 1910, vol. II, pp. 1075-1125.

name of these institutions generally from normal or training schools to teachers' colleges. In several cases they are given regular college rank, offering four years of work beyond the high school, and granting professional degrees. Besides these special schools and colleges for the training of teachers there are numerous auxiliaries for the training of teachers in service, such as teachers' institutes, reading courses, and associations.¹

9. Schools for Defectives and Delinquents

Another department of public education is represented in the schools for defectives and delinquents. Such institutions are very generally provided by the States, and in many cases are doing a great work of salvage to society. Schools for defectives are those for the blind, deaf, and feeble-minded. In 1910 there were reported 48 schools for the blind. These institutions employed a total of 531 instructors, 178 of whom were male and 353 female. There were enrolled as pupils 2,263 males and 2,060 females, or a total of 4,323.

The enrollment in these schools for the blind was distributed as follows as to grade:

Kindergarten.....	419
Elementary, grades 1 to 4.....	1,591
Elementary, grades 5 to 8.....	1,134
High-school grades.....	599

One thousand three hundred and seventeen were being instructed in vocal music and 1,752 in instrumental; 2,855 were in the industrial departments.

The total expenditures amounted to \$1,577,383, or a per-capita average, based on the enrollment, of \$364.85 per year.

¹ The problem of the training of teachers is treated more fully in chap. IX.

The schools for the deaf numbered 57, with 1,208 instructors, 378 males and 830 females. The total number of pupils was 10,399, 5,681 males and 4,718 females. These were distributed as follows:

Kindergarten.....	919
Elementary grades, 1 to 4.....	3,946
Elementary grades, 5 to 8.....	2,483
High-school grades.....	394

The number taught speech was 4,135, the number in the industrial department 6,052. The expenditures for the year were \$2,971,256, or an average cost per student, based on enrollment, of \$285.73.

Besides these State schools for the deaf, there were reported 53 day-schools enrolling 1,508 deaf pupils and employing 189 instructors.

In the 25 institutions for the education of the feeble-minded which reported in 1910, there were employed 270 instructors, including 58 men and 212 women, and 1,385 assistants. The total number of inmates was 16,678, of which 8,825 were males and 7,853 females. The reports show that 9,689 of these could not be taught in school or kindergarten. Of those capable of receiving instruction 1,456 were in the kindergarten, 1,754 in grades one and two, 830 in grades three and four, and 393 above the fourth grade. Four thousand six hundred and seventy-six were in the industrial-training department, and 3,069 were being taught some trade or occupation. The total expenditures of these institutions was \$3,949,109, or \$236.80 for each inmate reported.

The schools for delinquents have taken on a different significance in recent years. They are more frequently called industrial schools, although the name of reform school still holds. Their function is not only reformatory but also protective or in the nature of rescue schools,

in that the purpose frequently is to save the young from bad environments and thus prevent criminal development. The 1910 report shows 115 of these institutions maintained by the public. Of the 56,663 inmates 43,702 were boys and 12,961 girls; 45,741 were white and 7,434 colored; 42,381 received instruction in school classes, and 39,392 were learning some trade. The 115 schools employed 1,117 teachers and 2,783 assistants not teachers. There were expended a total of \$8,430,572 for maintaining these institutions, or an average of \$148.78 per inmate.

10. Military and Naval Schools

If we add to this list of descriptions the military and naval schools and their auxiliaries, the National Training School for Boys at Washington, D. C., the various Indian schools, the Bureau of Education, the Smithsonian Institution, and the Library of Congress, established and maintained chiefly by the Federal Government, we shall have completed, in a brief way, a description of the schools and institutions organized and maintained at public expense for the purposes of education in the United States.

11. Units of Control—Preliminary Considerations

We are now to study the distribution of these elements of the school system among the units of control and to consider them as a complete working scheme. At the same time we are to test them by the principles and standards involved and with reference to their efficiency in securing the results for which they have been established.

The kindergarten, as indicated by the figures already given, is not generally established as yet; but it has

many strong advocates and some fine training-schools, where teachers are prepared for the work. For the general purposes of this discussion we may very properly consider the kindergarten as a part of the elementary school system.

It requires all of the units of control, in some one or more of their functions, for the organization and operation of elementary schools. Primarily, their units are district, township, or city; but as there are elementary schools for defectives and delinquents, in some cases it belongs almost exclusively to the State. There are separate elementary schools for white and colored children, and for rural and city districts. One million seven hundred and twelve thousand one hundred and thirty-seven of the children enrolled in the common schools in 1909 were in the schools for colored children of the sixteen former slave States. As no separate statistics of instruction and expenditure are reported, we may best consider these a part of the general elementary system. This leaves us the rural and city elementary systems, the general statistical facts for which have already been presented.

12. Control of Rural Schools

The rural elementary schools include those in small towns and villages of a rural type and those of the country districts. When the district unit of control prevails these schools are generally far from ideal in character. They are usually operated under a board of three members (five or more in villages and small towns), elected by the people of the district. The buildings are not, as a rule, sanitary and are usually devoid of any artistic quality in construction. The village and town schools are usually too large for the number of teachers

employed, while the schools in the country districts are relatively small, ranging in numbers from two or three pupils to fifty or more. But large numbers are rare in the country schools.

Little attempt is made, as a usual thing, in the way of equipment for work. Many of the schools have little more than desks in the way of furnishings. There may be a few maps, a dictionary, in rare instances a piano or an organ; but few, indeed, are the attempts made to collect a suitable supply of books to supplement the texts of the children.

The teachers are mostly young girls just out of high school, and in many cases from the grade schools of the same type as the ones they essay to teach. Their professional preparation is frequently limited to a week or two in a county institute, with possibly the reading of one or two elementary works on pedagogy. In the larger schools and in the more enlightened and wealthier communities teachers of longer experience and of better training will be found, but even in these cases it is rarely that teachers are to be found who are prepared to deal adequately with the problems presented. The term of service of the teachers in any one school is very short—often but one term, or year at most; and very many of them drop out of the work entirely after a year or two of service.

13. Provisions for Supervision of Rural Schools

The village and town schools usually are presided over by a principal; but he is given no opportunity to supervise the work. Most of his time is taken in teaching two or more of the "upper grades." Even if time were given for him to supervise, his characteristic lack of experience, or of knowledge, or of both, would render such

service of little value. As it is, his supervisory function is limited to making reports to the board and settling difficult cases of discipline, or adjusting complaints of patrons.

The supervision of the other rural schools is generally confined to the efforts of one man who is superintendent for the whole county. He is usually a man of ordinary attainments and experience. If he is more ripe and therefore more efficient because of a richer experience this is the chief quality, as a rule, by which we may differentiate him from the village principal. He is well meaning and takes his position seriously, as a rule; but even at his best the unit of control is too large to be supervised by one person with any degree of efficiency. Unquestionably, this is much better than no supervision, but it does not meet the existing needs.

In States where there is township supervision the conditions are much better. In other States, also, under the district plan, better conditions prevail in some portions of a State than in others. This is due sometimes to the special efforts of a county superintendent, sometimes to the existence of higher educational ideals of the people who make up the local population.

But in spite of these very interesting exceptions in the general administrative efficiency of this group of schools, there are evidences of the violation of more than one of the five principles we have laid down as criteria. The education provided is not nearly always equal to the requirements of a democracy. The schools seldom provide the forms of education demanded by our social and industrial conditions. They are frequently not economically and efficiently administered. Nor are all the children kept in school long enough to accomplish the purposes of society in maintaining them. An inter-

esting item in the way of statistics will serve to emphasize the above statement of conditions. In 1908-9 there were enrolled in the public schools, including both elementary and secondary, 17,506,175 pupils. Of these 5,807,552 were enrolled in cities of 4,000 or more, thus leaving 11,698,623, or over two thirds of all, enrolled in the towns, villages, and country districts. At the same time the expenditures for cities amounted to \$211,106,299, while the expenditures for the rural schools were \$190,291,449. Thus the one third enrolled in city schools called for a larger expenditure than the two thirds enrolled in the rural schools. Evidently we must allow for the cost of high schools in the cities which, on account of their expensive equipment and the higher salaries paid their teachers, cost much more, proportionately, than do the elementary schools. But even after such allowance is made the balance is still largely in favor of the city elementary schools.

14. General Conditions in City Schools

The city schools are more completely organized, better supervised, and employ teachers that are better trained. They have better buildings and a better physical equipment generally than do the rural schools. At the same time there are factors in city environment and in the generally crowded conditions of city life which tend strongly to counteract these better conditions. The more sanitary buildings are offset by unsanitary surroundings and playgrounds that are cramped and shut in by the surrounding buildings. The better equipment is a poor substitute for the natural resources all about the rural school. The better teaching ability is counteracted by the numerous distractions, the restricted home conditions, and the absence of nature.

Superior supervisory arrangements are very often dissipated by overcrowding, the struggle with dirt, irregular attendance, and frequent changes in the residence of pupils.

Such conditions have given grounds for the assertion by some critics of city systems that with all their advantages they can produce no better, if as good, results as do the rural schools with all their seeming disadvantages. The significance of the whole matter is that there is need of improvement in both types of elementary schools and that a still larger expenditure of funds will be necessary in order to attain to the most economic efficiency. In the case of the rural schools this expenditure should provide better buildings and equipment as well as better teaching and supervision. For the city schools the need seems to be more largely for better physical conditions in the location and surroundings, the size of the grounds, and the opportunities for contact with nature.

15. Wide Variation in Character of Schools Provided

We have spoken of the variations in the quality of schools provided under different conditions. Among rural schools, especially, under district control, there is a wide variation as to the amount and quality of education provided. We need greatly some means by which there may be a more equitable distribution of such facilities. As it is now, most of the distributable funds are given out on a basis of school population instead of as a means of equalizing educational advantages.

The high schools are mostly for the cities. Only in a few States, and chiefly under township organization, are these schools made free to the children from the farms. In some cases in the South, as we have found, the county

is the unit for high-school organization. In either case both instruction and supervision are better provided for than in the case of elementary schools, as is also the physical equipment. The chief point at which these schools fail to meet the standards we have set up in the five fundamental principles is in adapting the work to social and individual needs. Too much attention has thus far been given to the purely academic side of education to the exclusion, largely, of the industrial side of the training of youth.

16. Need of Industrial Training

It may be said of both elementary and high-school work that they lack much along this line. All through our study of the development of the public-school idea we have found emphasized the two aspects of education: the training of mind and the training to some useful industry. Society needs industrial intelligence on the part of all and industrial skill on the part of those whose service to society is to be through some skilled industry. The best period in which to train the young to skill as well as intelligence is the period from twelve to sixteen or eighteen years. In some way, not wasteful and therefore uneconomic, both these lines of training should be provided for that particular interval of school work. Beyond that, those who expect to enter the trades should have further special training along with such academic work as will aid them in their trades as well as in performing their duties as citizens. Those who are to go on to the higher institutions should have such training as is needed in preparation for doing that higher work in the most effective and economic way.

CHAPTER VI

THE SYSTEM AS TESTED BY THE FIVE PRINCIPLES OF CHAPTER V

1. Application of Principle One

Let us now apply the test of our five principles to the existing organization of our schools as we have briefly described them in the preceding pages. Under principle one it was affirmed that "*intelligence, skill, and right conduct on the part of a people are fundamentally essential in a democracy.*" If all the people are to participate in government through the exercise of the franchise, then all should be sufficiently well educated to insure that degree of intelligence as to State and national interests necessary to a wise selection of representatives and leaders in our public affairs. Training merely in the school arts can give no adequate assurance of such a degree of intelligence. A standard equal to that of four years in high school is low enough. With a majority of voters having a much lower standard of general training and knowledge, how can we ever be on anything like stable ground with regard to the great fundamental problems confronting us?

Yet we are far short, as yet, of providing free schools of high-school grade for all boys and girls. A large percentage of those in our rural districts have no free access to such schools, while in our cities very many, the majority, in fact, drop out to work at or before the close

of the elementary-school training. One remedy for this situation would be to extend the upper age limit of compulsory-attendance laws to sixteen or seventeen years. In many States county high schools offer free tuition; but these schools are too far from the majority of pupils who would otherwise take advantage of them. The movement is gaining among the States for legislation making the tuition payable by districts in non-high-school territory, or by the State. Such legislation occurred in 1911 in Iowa and South Dakota. Better still is the joint or union district law which increases the taxing unit for high-school purposes so as to include all territory logically tributary to an established social and commercial centre, as a village, town, or small city. This plan works admirably in California when combined with a law providing that a tax be levied on all non-high-school territory in a county for payment of tuition of those from such territory attending high school. The Illinois township high-school law as enacted in 1911 has the same effect as far as the union-district idea is concerned, but a fully effective free-tuition measure is still lacking. The one of 1913 still leaves some districts without free high-school privileges.

As regards the training of skilled workmen in different industrial lines, we can scarcely be said to have made a beginning as yet. Recent statistics show that only twenty-nine States have any legislation with reference to practical activities. This includes all grades and forms of training in manual arts, domestic economy, agriculture, and trades. Nearly all of these represent permissive legislation with only sixteen States offering any inducement by way of State aid. Much of the training represented is not of a kind calculated to aid materially in acquiring skill of a definite and well or-

ganized character. Because of the permissive character of most of the legislation and the absence, in many cases, of such a stimulus as an offer of aid from the State always gives, little use has as yet been made of these laws in organizing vocational courses. Likewise, in training to right ideals and standards of conduct we seem to have been, thus far, very deficient. As to just what should be done in this latter case we are still much in doubt; but all may readily agree that there should be a wise and liberal provision for vocational training in our schools if we are to maintain our standing among nations in competition for a market through which to dispose advantageously of our surplus products from the great fundamental industries and in the finer arts of life.

But to stop merely with the training of workmen to skill would be a fatal error if there did not come along with it civic intelligence for the tradesman and industrial intelligence for the professional man and the capitalist. It is in this latter respect, after all, perhaps, that we are most in danger as far as our institutional life is concerned. Without a general industrial intelligence on the part of all classes we are bound to have more or less of clashing and discord between capital and labor, thus rendering all great enterprises of a constructive nature uncertain of attainment and unstable even when they seem to have been attained.

2. Our Schools as Tested by Principle Two

The second principle reads: "*It is the aim of society through the public school to insure to all the people the greatest degree of efficiency, physically, intellectually, morally, and industrially, of which they are individually and collectively capable.*" This is complementary to the first

principle and its application is, therefore, largely involved in that of the latter. The chief point at which this common application is not so evident is that of providing for the physical well-being of those educated in our schools. Our people are only just awakening to a realization of the possibilities and needs of this phase of educational administration. Indeed, we may very justly say that those communities are relatively few where such awakening has advanced to the point of making anything like adequate provision for protecting the schools against inroads made upon attendance and efficiency by bad nutrition of pupils, chronic ailments, neglect of the teeth, and the various contagious diseases common to children and youth.

In many of the larger cities and in some smaller centres efficient departments of health and hygiene have been organized. According to statistics collected by the Russell Sage Foundation and published in 1911, 443 out of 1,038 cities reporting provided for medical inspection of school children.¹ But a vast amount of work still remains to be done before this phase of our educational organism can be said to be efficiently handled. Practically all of our rural and village schools are as yet without any service of this kind in connection with the training of the young. Such provision must doubtless wait upon a better administrative organization for these schools.

The department of work here referred to, as thus far set up in its most desirable form, includes, under the direction of the board and the general superintendent of instruction of the district, a department of health composed of a medical inspector and assistants, visiting

¹ This is quoted from the Com. of Education Report, 1911, vol. I, p. 137.

nurses, medical and dental clinics, with all proper facilities for the best of treatment and care of those having remediable physical defects. Such a department should also be closely related to and in co-operation with the department of physical education. To some of the members of this latter department or to the physician in charge of medical inspection should be assigned the function of prescribing specific training for those having any physical weakness or deformity which may be remedied by the proper physical treatment, such as spinal curvature or dislocation of either arch. This would involve some knowledge of orthopedics.

All of the above work is much better done when under the direct control of the board of education than when made a distinct function under the control of the town or city government. Emphasis should be put upon the number and qualifications, personal and professional, of the visiting nurses. It is they who will need to go to the homes in follow-up cases, a service which requires consummate tact, sympathy, and persistency in order to open the way for such treatment.

There is need, also, that the mentally defective should be studied through the psychological clinic in order to endeavor to attain knowledge requisite for the special treatment demanded in such cases. Thus far we have made but little progress, comparatively, in this form of conservation, although there is that in the form of legislation by States and in the action of larger cities in providing tests and special classes for such defectives to indicate that a much better condition for the near future is now assured with regard to this particular need.

As regards moral education we are undoubtedly deficient. Perhaps we have leaned toward the extreme a little in our anxiety to eliminate all ecclesiastical con-

trol from the public-school system. At any rate, we have been too much inclined to emphasize purely intellectual training to the neglect of the inculcation of those principles and habits which make for righteous living. In this respect also the schools we have set up are still lacking in efficiency.

3. Schools Fall Short under Principle Three

Principle three is: "*Schools, to be efficient, must be varied in type to the end that they may provide for individual differences in capacity and in stages of development, and also for the varied needs of society in the way of trained service.*" As to the first point, it may fairly be said that the schools as now organized do not make adequate provision, as a rule, for individual differences. It is pretty generally agreed by all students of this problem that our schools are in need of a rather complete readjustment. From the sixth grade on there is especially lacking that differentiation of the work offered in the schools which makes possible a reasonable provision for the individual differences referred to. For a very similar reason also we fall short on the second point of providing that variety and degree of trained service which society demands.

What we need in order to remedy these very serious defects is not more and different types of schools so much as the complete reorganization of the schools we have with more serious attention to the motor activities as they are actually related to the needs of life. There is needed a decided departure from our prevailing ideas of school architecture in order to give the most satisfactory and economic conditions for the vocational activities which such a reorganization of our schools would set up. There is also to be considered the supply of those

properly qualified and available for giving instruction in these new departments of school work. As yet little attention has been given to providing ways and means for the training of such teachers. If the State—any State—is to undertake the solution of these problems with any prospect of success, the means for providing this new factor in the instructional work of our schools must have prompt and adequate consideration.

4. Need of a Better Economy Shown—Principle Four

True economy in the conduct of any worthy enterprise is not necessarily measured by the minimum of expenditure of whatever resources may be demanded for achieving the essential results. Principle four reads thus: "*The situation demands the most economic treatment of the problem of education financially, in the matter of time, and also in health conditions that is consistent with its most effective administration.*" Educational expenditures are, in the aggregate, very large. In dealing with so large a social group it is necessary that this should be so. In 1909 there were in actual attendance on the public schools 12,684,837 children, which was 72.5 per cent of the number enrolled in the schools. The total expense of the schools for the same year was \$401,397,747. This would be an average total cost per child in actual attendance of \$31.57, or not more than a man would pay for an ordinary overcoat or a suit of clothes. Where, indeed, could society or the individual expect to get as much for the money invested? Suppose the cost were \$50 per pupil; if we have any appreciation at all of relative values, the price would be very low, the investment a gilt-edged one. As a matter of fact, the State of Washington does spend \$50.75 per pupil and the State of California \$47.65 per pupil. To

be sure, the man who would sell his soul for a debauch could see nothing but total loss in such expenditure; and so the estimate would run, gradually increasing up to the view-point of the man who knows what government, peace and harmony, social well-being, the finer joys of life derived from peaceful and happy homes, artistic appreciation, regard for our fellow men, are really worth. Ah, here is the trouble! Men, because they lack vision, because they do not know social and economic values, are mean and niggardly in all those expenditures which are essential to the establishment or cultivation of such values.

But all this does not excuse any laxity or leniency where true economy in the use of educational funds is concerned. These very men who know not the values with which they deal, when placed in responsible positions as guardians of this great social trust, the public school, will build shabby and inadequate buildings on ground that is undesirable and skimped. They will let contracts for material supplies to the lowest bidder, regardless of other conditions, if they do not even accept a bonus for giving the business or the service to the one who deliberately plans thus to trade upon the children's needs. They will employ teachers at the lowest possible salary, regardless of qualifications, the character and need of which they do not understand, in order to "keep down" the school tax. They invariably stand opposed to any movement that, in any way, looks toward better and more efficient schools.

5. Why Society Must Share the Criticism of the Schools

We hear much in these days about the failure of the public schools in meeting the demands put upon them.

But most of the complaint is directed against the teachers, against those who are called by society to administer the instructional work. Little is said about the failure of society to provide the means adequate for the production of such results. We hear nothing in the public press about this niggardly, senseless attitude of those whom society has called to hold the educational purse; nothing when society, over large areas of the country, cries out unceasingly and works, often insanely, against some slight additional outlay looking toward a betterment of the schools. And all the lingering advocates of ecclesiastical control of education join the ranks of these men, without vision and with no appreciation of the greater social values, in helping to perpetuate the inadequacy of the public schools. If this were democracy, inevitably and always, with no ground for an optimistic outlook toward the future, then democracy would be nothing but a huge blunder, a grewsome thing at which all patriotic men must look with foreboding and dismay.

If there is any remedy for this uneconomic treatment of one of our greatest social investments it must be sought through the establishment of such means for the selection of those set aside by society for managing this huge enterprise as will be most likely to secure men of sufficient breadth and understanding to be able to choose wisely the materials of education and also those who are to administer the work of instruction. Wherever this has been done, and where the social group concerned has been content to trust the experts thus chosen, and to invest the amount of capital necessary to operate the educational plant, provide for up-keep, and take care of the necessary increase and expansion, there we shall find schools not seriously open to the criticisms

which have thus far been hurled broadcast and without discrimination at our entire system of public education.

6. Need of Economy in Time

Economy in time is inseparably connected with financial economy and the conservation of health. In the first place the individual is concerned. He has but once to go the way of life. When the state assumes to take a portion of this relatively short period for the proper education of the individual, the state, society, also assumes the obligation to see to it that this time is not wasted either through failure to provide the necessary means or through inadequate or inefficient instruction. A similar obligation rests, also, with reference to the physical well-being of the child as related to the work of the school. Here society, in order to protect itself effectively, must often protect the child, through adequate health laws, against the laxity, inadequacy, or venality of the home or the industrial world. All this may mean the loss or gain of time to the individual.

The same conditions in the home or the industry named above may also tend to rob the child of the time needed in the school, thus also tending to defeat the purpose of society in establishing and maintaining the school. Against such loss society must protect itself and the individual by enacting and providing adequately for the enforcement of attendance laws. This involves, as an auxiliary to instruction similar to that of health supervision, the establishment of a department which shall see to the just and strict enforcement of attendance laws. Incidentally, also, there will be involved some provision for the proper treatment of those children who early develop incorrigible tendencies, as manifested

by habitual truancy or a general unsocial attitude toward the school.

Here, again, as in the case of the health problem, the general practice is neglectful and uneconomic, although there is a marked tendency toward betterment of conditions in this respect.¹ It is evident enough that both these sources of waste, if they are to be reduced, will involve some additional outlay. The basis for their economic treatment will be found in the rights and interests both of the individual and of society. Over against the money cost of the remedy will stand the relative advantage of the socially adjusted and efficient individual as contrasted with the cost of the unsocial and inefficient or totally dependent member of the social group.

7. Application of Principle Five

Principle five, which follows, has already been considered under the preceding discussion of economic considerations: *"In order to secure the general effectiveness of such a system, society must, by legal compulsion if necessary, see to it that parents keep their children in school long enough to enable them to get at least the minimum of knowledge, wisdom, and skill necessary to the highest good of the individual and the well-being of the State."* There is lacking a general appreciation among some important groups of our people as to what is essentially included in such a "minimum of knowledge, wisdom, and skill." This limitation is true of rural communities generally; of some of our more or less segregated foreign populations; of large manufacturing and mining centres. It should not be forgotten that such groups require every

¹ Both these problems of health and attendance will be found treated more fully later on as special topics for chapters.

opportunity for enlightenment on this phase of our social needs. For upon the education of the parents, in such instances, must the education of the children wait, especially that which extends beyond the first six years of the elementary school.

8. Need of Social Like-Mindedness

When we come to consider our educational system as a whole we are at once struck with its lack of completeness and full co-ordination. The general situation may be described as an almost utter lack of any social like-mindedness in regard to many of the most important features of our scheme for educating the young. If it is urged that this condition is due to the process of development through which we have come and are still advancing as a nation, well and good. But is it not time, in the interests of economy and efficiency, that we apply a little of our scientific method to the betterment of this shaping process rather than that we close our eyes to the most glaring inconsistencies because this has been done in the past? It is one of the glories of democracy that it permits of a maximum of initiative and of free development along all possible lines. But there are certain fundamental features pertaining to an institution of such nation-wide importance as is the public school which should be accepted as constants by all elements of our larger social group. Such constants are fairly expressed in the five principles which we have just been using as a basis for testing our educational organization.

In order to achieve those results upon which our social fabric must rest for its permanency and effectiveness, society should see that all maladjustments, all omissions, all leaks in the parts of the structure or at their

lines and points of articulation are eliminated. Further, all waste as a result of unnecessary duplications in function should be reduced to a minimum if not entirely prevented.

9. Need of Better Organization

We have noted, for instance, evidences of incomplete functioning on the part of certain types of schools. There has appeared a lack of proper attention to training to skill in workmanship in the upper elementary grades and in the high school. It is believed by those who have most carefully studied this problem that the organization of our school units is wrong here—that we should begin as early as the seventh year or grade to arrange the work departmentally so as to make possible the introduction of such vocational instruction. The experiments that have thus far been made along this line seem to corroborate this view. But there is no general acceptance, no movement, except in remote centres. The economic way would seem to be for society to organize carefully conducted experiments under such typical conditions as would be fairly representative of all important variations in communities. Such experiments, directed by experts, would serve to demonstrate the strength or weakness of the plan and would attract attention not only to the need of a remedy but also to the best way of realizing it. As things now are, all is left to a “cut-and-try” process on the part of independent units of control educationally, while traditional custom holds sway in general, and school authorities succumb to the general lethargy.

10. High Schools Should be Free to All

Another cause of incomplete functioning seen in our high schools is due to the fact that this grade of public education is not yet made free to all sections and classes. For a long time to come the high school must be the chief training place for teachers for our rural schools. But in most States there are not a sufficient number of high-school graduates entering the teacher's calling to supply more than a fraction of the number needed to fill all the positions open to those of such grade of training. As a result, many whose qualifications are much lower become the teachers of these schools. And even if the high schools were sufficient in numbers and free to all, there would still be lacking, in most of them, the vocational instruction which those who are to teach should have as a part of their high-school training.

11. Neglect of Rural-School Needs

The normal schools have thus far largely neglected the needs of the rural schools in their special work of preparing teachers. This is a result more largely of an economic situation, however, than of any direct or wilful action on the part of those administering this feature in our educational scheme. The social classes from which the vast majority of our rural teachers are drawn are not such as would feel able, in most instances, to maintain one or more members of the family away from home for one or two years in order that they might be prepared to teach. On the other hand, those who do take the two years of training at a greater outlay seek the positions which pay best and which offer the greatest inducements in the way of vocational or social advancement. It is probably this state of things that is

largely responsible for the seeming neglect, by normal schools, of rural-school interests.

The situation points definitely to the need of a better adjustment in the organization of rural schools. The isolated, poorly kept, often unequipped rural school is not a strong inducement for young men, and especially not for young women, who have had a two years' contact with the larger social life and advantages offered by a normal-school environment. The solution offered, and which experience approves, is consolidation of rural schools as a substitute for the village school of Europe, and a more complete provision for the supervision of all rural education.

12. Where Colleges and Universities Fall Short

The colleges and universities are also guilty of incomplete functioning as related to the problem of universal public education of a type to fit the needs of our political and social order. These higher institutions have shown the same seeming lack of interest in the institutions lower down as have the normal schools toward the rural community needs. The facilities needed for the training of leaders in expert educational service and of teachers for our high schools have been very tardily and inadequately provided. Economic considerations have caused the normal schools to push their graduates into these fields. At the same time similar considerations have prevented a sufficiently large number of those with college or university training from entering the teaching field, in institutions below college rank, to meet the demand for properly qualified teachers in our rapidly expanding system of secondary schools. A further neglect by the universities has been in a failure to offer courses for those who were looking forward to a career

in the field of the educational expert as it is related to the general administration of education. This defect is now being remedied as rapidly as it is possible for the new scientific view-point to find recognition among the still strongly intrenched traditions of the liberal-arts courses. The idea strongly holds, however, in many sections, that all there is to education in the common schools is teaching, and that the sole requirement for this, from the standpoint of university preparation, is a profound knowledge of the subject to be taught.

13. Better Classification of Defectives and Delinquents

The treatment of defective and delinquent classes is also open to serious question as to its real economy and effectiveness. Here the per-capita cost is so great as to require the utmost care lest the methods of treatment be ineffective and wasteful. The more careful sifting of these classes with the idea of avoiding useless experimentation upon those who cannot be successfully treated as cases for education should bring some relief to this situation. The application of the tests of the psychological clinic and the more persistent study of individual antecedents may be expected to lead to a much more definite and tangible basis for treatment of this problem than has heretofore been possible. But not until these institutions are placed on a basis of non-political expert control can any such advancement in their management and results be expected.

CHAPTER VII

BOARDS OF EDUCATION

I. Popular Participation the Rule in Our School Organization

Like Germany, our educational interests are left to individual States to administer rather than to the nation at large. Unlike Germany, however, our tendency has been toward the encouragement of local initiative and popular participation in control. This is in strict accord with the spirit and method of our government, both State and national, in all its branches. There have been variations at times and in certain departments of government or certain sections of the country. But reactions in such cases are common. We have a striking evidence of this in the popular demand for "referendum and recall." Our courts, by reason of the manner of their establishment, have gradually drawn away from the original source of their authority—the people. So completely have they hedged themselves and their acts about with precedents that their procedures amount practically to the determination of the laws of the land. Their holdings and decisions either predetermine legislation or else mould or veto it afterward. As a logical result of such a condition, the people who created these courts are now demanding their reformation.

In setting up units of control in education States have generally recognized this fundamental principle of our

peculiar form of democracy. There have been exceptional cases readily traceable to some local condition or influence. Ambitious departments of government have sought in various ways to centralize this control. But thus far, in the main, the people have insisted upon a hearing and the right to participate in the establishment and conduct of the schools. Wherever movement has been away from the people there has been seen a tendency toward the same formalism and aloofness from popular sentiment which the courts have manifested.

2. Results of Lack of Such Participation

One of the most striking illustrations of such an atrophied condition of public interest in education as would naturally result from lack of participation is to be found in the Southern States. In recent years there has come a tremendous awakening among educators, statesmen, and men of the more recently developed industrial interests of the South with regard to the need of more and better schools. But the people have become accustomed to look to the State, as a sort of generous parent, to supply the funds necessary to support their meagre educational requirements. Now that their interest and support are demanded in a local way to make possible the needed increase in facilities for the education of their children, they present to the appeals of the reformer an indifference and lethargy that are baffling and almost hopeless.

A similar situation has been imminent with regard to our higher institutions of learning. Even State institutions dependent upon popular support have been involved in some instances. There has grown up in these institutions, all unpremeditatedly, a certain aristocratic attitude of aloofness from general popular needs and

interests. Just in proportion as these institutions have receded from such an attitude, have become thoroughly humanized, as it were, and have taken up, with all sincerity, those great problems of the people which higher learning alone can render soluble, to that extent have the people responded, and will continue to respond, in providing adequately and generously for their support.

3. Logical Limitations to Centralized Control

We hear much talk in these days about tendencies toward centralization in our educational affairs. Let us not be deceived. We may find more effective adjustments of the machinery for the administering of our schools; indeed, there is everywhere seen the need of such readjustments. But in the strict sense, in the sense that there is to be less of participation by the people than heretofore, there is no such evidence of a tendency toward centralized control. If there were such a tendency there would be in it a genuine cause for alarm for all those who seek the permanent advancement of education and the perpetuity of our democracy.

Ultimately the cost of education falls upon all the people, upon all who pay the price of rentals, of food, of clothing, of that which satisfies any human want. These same people will not knowingly surrender their right to an accounting for what they thus contribute toward the maintenance of schools. They will even demand a right to some specific representation on both the taxing and the spending bodies set up by society to provide the necessary schools. Every proposed increase in the educational budget in order to provide for the rapidly growing demands due to our educational development will call out more and more insistently a demand for this representation, and for wide-spread publicity with re-

gard to all innovations or increased expenditures proposed by those set aside as experts to conduct the education of the young in our public schools. And this is only right and just. How else is the individual to get all the development, physical, mental, spiritual, to which, "by the sweat of his brow," he has an inherent and inalienable right?

4. Operation of This Principle in Case of Boards of Control

It is a most remarkable fact that in all the seemingly haphazard development of State systems of education this principle of the need and the right of participation by the people is always uppermost. Nowhere is this more clearly evident than in the provisions made for boards of control of the educational units discussed in the foregoing chapters. The usual practice of society has been to set over each of the units of control a group of persons chosen by the people as a board of school directors or a board of education. Such a practice may be said to be universal in the case of cities and all school districts, including townships where these are the local units. It is much less frequently true of counties and States.

In the case of local or district units such boards are invested with large powers and duties, including practically all that is essential to the establishment and operation of schools. In the organization of the larger units, with but few exceptions, the functions of such boards are much more general and limited, usually having to do with those things common to the larger unit as distinguished from interests more local and specific in character. It is the purpose in this chapter to discuss at some length the different types of boards, with typical

organizations under different units; the possible co-ordination of boards of the larger and smaller units; and to offer some constructive criticisms of existing conditions and tendencies.

5. Manner of Choosing District and City Boards

In our previous discussion of units of control as developed in the process of establishing schools we have called attention, in a casual way, to the various kinds of boards. It still remains to discuss these organizations more in detail and to study them with reference to their actual functioning in the operation of schools. Boards of districts and cities vary both as to the number of members and as to the method of selecting them. In the matter of numbers the variation is wide, but details need not be gone into further on this point. These boards are either elected by popular vote or appointed. In case of election by popular vote two general practices prevail: (1) they are elected at general elections as a part of the general political procedure, or (2) they are voted for at a special election called for school purposes only. By this latter method it is believed that the selection of the members is more definitely removed from the influence of political methods. In some instances an effort is made to select a board that is representative of the different sections or districts of a city. This plan naturally brings into the board and its actions many local or sectional contentions, thus causing the members not infrequently to lose sight of the larger general interests in their efforts to adjust merely local and prejudiced interests. The present tendency is to seek suitable persons from the citizens at large and to elect those who are not only willing to take the time and trouble necessary in performing this important service for the

community but who are able to bring to the service a fair degree of intelligence and good business ability.

Where effort is made to elect members representative of sectional interests there is very apt to be brought into the board meetings and discussions, as suggested above, many petty neighborhood jealousies and desires which should have no part in determining the educational work of the city or district. Such matters do not affect so intimately members chosen at large, and they therefore approach their work with a more judicial attitude of mind and act more in accordance with the interests of the community as a whole.

The method of choosing boards by appointment, as generally practised, belongs particularly to cities, and is also seen to work to the disadvantage of society in its effort to secure efficiently administered schools. The common procedure in such cases is to give the city executive the appointing power. As he is nearly always a political partisan put up by the usual machinery of partisan politics, his choice is apt to be affected strongly by the methods of the politician who seeks to mete out favors in exchange for influence and votes. Furthermore, such a method carries with it the probability of complete and abrupt, not to say frequent, changes in educational policy in many of our cities. Thus the whole machinery of educational administration is rendered unstable, making impossible any such natural evolution in the local educational system as seems desirable and necessary to wholesome, logical growth.

6. Term of Service

This brings up the question of term of service of board members. The consensus of view is that this should be for several years and the selection of new members so

arranged as to make the board a continuous body, *i. e.*, with always a majority of the members holding over.

7. Co-ordination of Boards of Large and Small Units

There is little or no relationship between boards of local districts or cities and county or State boards of education. Thus far the idea of a logical co-ordination of these boards so as to give to each a distinct function and yet provide for their complete co-operation in carrying forward the administration of a State system of education seems to have received little attention. County boards, where they exist, may have complete charge of the educational interests of a county or their relation to the schools may be a more or less formal and perfunctory contact at some one point in the mechanism. For instance, the board may exist to select and adopt text-books, as in South Dakota and West Virginia; as a fiscal agent, as in Virginia and Florida; for examining and certificating teachers, as in Kansas, Michigan, Mississippi, Montana, New Jersey, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon. Or the county board may have full control, as in Georgia,¹ where its functions are: to select a county commissioner; to divide the county into subdistricts when necessary, for white and colored races; to employ teachers; to purchase, lease, or rent school sites; to build or repair school-houses; to decide controversies relating to school law. Between these two extremes there are various other types of county boards with correspondingly differing degrees of authority and responsibility.

Kentucky is a good illustration of a State that has

¹ In Bibb County, Georgia, such a board, consisting of fifteen members, is self-perpetuating, all vacancies in the membership being filled by the board itself. There are four such counties in Georgia, operating under special charters and independently of State laws as affecting the organization and administration of their schools.

undertaken to co-ordinate county and local boards in the management of schools. In that State the county is the school unit with the exception of the graded-school districts of cities and towns, which are independent. The ungraded schools of the county are included in educational divisions provided for by statute. Each of these divisions has a board made up of the trustees, one from each district, of all the subdistricts in that educational division. The chairmen of these division boards together with the county superintendent, who is the presiding officer, constitute the county board of education. Thus the county, division, and subdistrict organizations are all duly co-ordinated.

8. State Boards of Education

As to State boards of education, the functions, authority, and composition are of almost as many varieties as there are States providing for them. In composition most of them are partly or wholly *ex officio*. When partly so, the remaining members, varying from two to eight, are usually appointed by the governor of the State. Like county boards, their powers and duties range from that of selecting text-books or certifying teachers to a general control and supervision of all educational interests of the State. In extent of authority, the Oklahoma board, as established by the legislature in 1911, exceeds all others. It has complete control and authority over everything educational of a public nature in the State with the exception of the College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.¹

In this case, again, no definite provision is made for co-ordinate action with or through county and district boards. In several of the States the duties and author-

¹ See U. S. Com. Report, 1911, vol. I, pp. 76-77.

ity conferred upon these boards are of such a character as to indicate that due consideration was given to the scope and character of the smaller unit organizations. In perhaps as many other cases no thought seems to have been given to setting any "metes and bounds" to the authority of State boards, on account of what might be considered the prerogatives of the smaller and more local unit organization. In other words, these latter are strictly subordinated rather than co-ordinated. The probabilities are that they should be neither in a complete sense.

9. State Institutional Boards

Another form of State or district board has been established in most of the States to preside over the general administration of State educational institutions. In the case of State universities there are one or more boards selected from the State at large. The number is determined by the practice of the State in organizing its university departments. Where these are in two or more distinct groups, located in different centres, the custom has been to have a board for each division. The tendency now seems to be toward a common board for all such institutions in a given State. Noteworthy illustrations of this are seen in recent legislation in Iowa and Kansas. The case of Oklahoma, cited above, represents the extreme of consolidation, and puts all State institutions save one under the State board of education.

As in the case of county and State boards of education, so in establishing boards of trustees or regents for university, college, or normal-school control little or no thought seems to have been given to any logical scheme of correlation or co-ordination of their functions with those of other educational interests. The only approach

to such an idea is seen in making the State superintendent of education or instruction an *ex-officio* member of such boards, but ordinarily with no official relation definitely specified.

10. Haphazard Growth of Methods of Control

All of this goes to show that the whole matter of control in education as provided for by society through legislation has been a matter of haphazard growth, of crude experimentation with untried theories, of radical movements due to the dominance of an extreme view, or an overwhelming reaction against some intolerably evil practice.

The reaction against political control of educational affairs in Oklahoma, for instance, probably gave that State its present extreme centralized control—a situation no more rational, yet about as inevitable as was an emperor after the first republic in France. True it is that there is ample evidence of the persistence of old traditions, as seen in the county unit of control in the South and again in the strong, centralized State control in New York and in the States immediately influenced thereby. On the other hand, the development of the local district organization came partly as a result of the accident of settlement in a new country, partly from the strong reaction against centralization as a result of the French and American Revolutions. The development of separate sections of the university function in States was undoubtedly due in part to tradition and in part to an utter lack of clear understanding on the part of law-makers of what a State institution of university grade really should include. But we should not omit here the influence of another very important factor, viz., the act of the Federal Government in granting lands to aid in the

establishment and support of institutions for training in agriculture and the mechanic arts. It is easy to see how this gave rise to the establishment of separate colleges of agriculture. The thing happened not because it seemed the best way so much as because the emphasis was put upon the industrial side by the very nature and purpose of the act, and there was no established precedent for the States to follow.

II. Persistence of Traditions

Once a policy is established, the machinery developed for its operation, and vested interests created, and there is fixed a difficult, if not insuperable, barrier to future change without some powerful motive by which to stimulate public sentiment to the point of action. Thus it has come about that practices at first more or less tentatively entered upon have passed over into the customary and even traditional. And so the example of a State or city has furnished to some newer State or city a method of procedure which, when duly modified so as to suit local theories or local wants, has become the law of the newly established commonwealth.

12. Discussion of Types. Boards of Rural and Village Schools

Having thus reviewed the existing situation in a general way, let us proceed to discuss more definitely and critically the various types of boards as they have thus far developed. Naturally, the starting-point should be determined by what we consider the most fundamental and far-reaching aspect of this factor in school administration. Or if the exact type for an ideal treatment is lacking, then we may very properly take the nearest approach to it as our point of departure. It has already

been intimated that this should be as near as possible, consistently with efficient management, to the people most directly concerned and participating in the support and direction of the schools.

This leads us directly to a consideration of boards of rural and village schools. These are, practically in every instance, elected by the people of the community which they serve. In numbers they vary from the single trustee of a township or subdistrict to three directors or trustees of independent districts. These boards, except in some cases in New England, are without any executive officers under them except such duties of an executive nature as they may impose upon the teachers employed. In some cases in village schools where there are a principal and several teachers this executive function is lodged in the principal. In the vast majority of cases, however, there is no recognized principal teacher *de facto*, and consequently no clearly defined discrimination of function, when it comes to actual administration, as between the teacher and the board.

13. County Boards

The first point in ascent from the smaller unit at which we find, by general practice, an executive officer is in the county unit. Here again the discrimination of function is lacking or obscure. Either there is no board, as is true of nineteen States, or else the superintendent of the county is not the executive officer of the board. In only three States are the superintendents of county units appointed by county boards. Thus we find only three States in which the superintendent of rural schools is under a board of education, while in twenty-six States the superintendent is elected directly by the people, and in most instances reports his time to the county super-

visors as a basis for payment of his salary. He ordinarily reports all educational matters directly to the State superintendent. Thus the legislative, executive, and judicial functions pertaining to the management of rural schools waver more or less impotently between a local board of trustees, with an entirely lay membership but with no educational executive, and a quasi-educational executive chosen out of the vicissitudes of county politics and usually called upon to exercise all three of the above-named functions for the rural schools of an entire county.

Evidently a county board elected by the people and chosen at large, with authority to select, appoint, and fix the compensation of one or more supervisory officers to look after the work of instruction, attendance, health, and sanitation, and defective, dependent, and delinquent children, would be a desirable solution to such a problem. Such a board should have the authority to district the county for both elementary and high-school purposes, and also for purposes of supervision; to discontinue schools and consolidate districts when expedient; to levy and collect taxes; to provide suitable school sites for each district; to erect schoolhouses; to provide for transportation of children where necessary; to select and adopt text-books with the advice and on the recommendation of the superintendent; to appoint and fix the compensation of teachers; to discuss and adopt programmes of study and regulations governing the schools when recommended by the superintendent; to co-operate with the State board in the certification of teachers and in such other matters as demand consideration extending beyond the jurisdiction of single counties.

Some such plan of adjustment seems to be the only recourse by which rural schools may be organized on the

basis of highest efficiency in achieving the purposes for which they are established and maintained. Such a county board should not exceed five in number, to be chosen from the county at large, and each member to serve for at least three years. Besides the general powers and duties enumerated above, this board should also have authority to choose certain advisory boards, authorized to make recommendations to the board of education along special lines, such as various forms of vocational training, music, physical training, the care of defective children, etc.

14. Kentucky Plan of Rural Organization

Provisions somewhat similar for the handling of the rural situation are not lacking in actual practice. The Kentucky plan,¹ already referred to, has many points in common with the plan proposed. Other Southern States make provisions somewhat similar, while the county boards of Indiana embody in their powers and duties most of the functions above enumerated. The logic of such an arrangement is readily apparent. The schools are created by the people and the people pay the cost. A board elected by the people thus becomes their representative body to transact the business of the schools. The people can be trusted to select lay members for such a board. They will probably succeed oftener in making a wise selection than will any appointive body. But when it comes to the selection of educational experts to superintend instruction or to teach in the schools, all experience is directly and emphatically opposed to election by popular vote. This principle will hold good at any point or for any unit of control of our educational system.

¹ See pp. 112-113 of this chapter.

15. City Boards

As has been said in another chapter, city units of control have come about in a peculiar way. It is in the nature of the case that they should represent a peculiar problem in our plans for the conduct of our system of education. In nearly all instances cities have been considered by legislatures as apart from other units. At the same time education in cities as in other subdivisions of the State has been held as a distinct function of society quite apart, in all essential phases of its administration, from other functions of government. In this sense boards of education have nearly always been given a distinct corporate existence under the laws of States. They are usually given all the powers and duties necessary to the complete organization, equipment, and maintenance of schools without interference from other departments of city, county, or State governments.

It is important, also, in this connection, to bear in mind that in no case except that of the State itself is the territorial unit of control necessarily co-extensive with political units of control. That the State even is an exception is plainly accounted for on the ground that it is the original lawgiving body of society for all matters pertaining to the management of schools.

Thus city boards of education have always enjoyed an autonomy more or less marked and distinct as compared with that of other educational bodies having a similar function. As a result the evolution of the city board has been more logical than that of other boards. It has been, in the main, a result of the effort of society to establish a smaller representative body intended to act for society in the actual establishment and conduct of the schools. Itself composed of laymen, it has, al-

most from the first, sought an expert executive especially for the administration of instruction. Other matters, such as the business side of administration; the laying out, construction, and supervision of grounds and buildings; health, attendance, and the care of defectives, have been met in different ways, chiefly these three: (1) committees of the board have been charged with them; (2) separate departments headed by experts have been set up; or (3) all have been assigned more or less definitely to the one executive along with the supervision of instruction.

16. The Committee System

In the committee system we have again the layman assuming the duties of the expert. The plan of leaving all to one executive head, common in smaller cities, without giving him special expert assistants, practically ignores the modern idea of expert service. For this is not an age when men can readily become experts in three or four widely divergent lines. Yet where the system is too small good economy forbids any such specialization in experts. In such instances the principle of the advisory committee working in conjunction with a single executive may be found helpful.

17. Methods of Selection of City Boards

The prevailing method of selection of city boards has been by election although not always for the city at large. As has already been pointed out, the method of representation by subdistricts or wards has not been successful. This idea of representation might be much better provided for by some scheme such as just referred to for the selection of advisory boards representing not different sections of the city but different educational

interests, as vocational, musical, physical, or the care of special classes. By such a plan, carefully worked out, boards might call to their assistance bodies of experts whose advice would be exceedingly helpful and enlightening with regard to these great problems of educational development which are constantly up for their consideration.

18. Special Investigations as Related to City Boards

The problem of city boards of education has attracted much attention in recent years. It has been ably discussed at various sessions of the National Education Association. It has been made the subject of special inquiry and investigation by different cities. This was done for the city of Chicago in 1898, when an educational commission of eleven members, representative of different interests, was appointed by the mayor. This commission was presided over by the late President William R. Harper, and many of the leading educational experts of the country were called into consultation. An exhaustive report of the work of the commission was published by the city.¹

More recently special expert investigations have been conducted, notably in Baltimore, New York City, and Portland, Ore. The published reports² of these investigations contain important criticisms and recommendations with regard to the boards of education. In

¹ Report of the Educational Commission of the City of Chicago, Chicago, 1899.

² Report of Commission Appointed to Study the System of Education of the Public Schools of Baltimore, U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin no. 4, 1911. "How New York City Administers Its Schools," E. C. Moore ("School Efficiency Series," Hanus), World Book Co., N. Y., 1913. Report of the Survey of the Public School System of School District No. 1, Multnomah County, Oregon, City of Portland, Nov. 1, 1913.

the first two cities it happens that the department of education, instead of being an independent corporation of an independent school district, is administered under a department or departments of municipal government. The recommendations made in both instances are strongly against placing such limitations upon the administration as naturally arise where political methods enter into the selection and appointment of any of the officials or experts connected with the conduct of education.

Nearly all critics agree, also, that the board of education of a city should be a comparatively small body. Various numbers are suggested, but in most cases three to seven members are designated as sufficient. The term of office generally proposed is at least three years, with a minority of the members chosen each year, thus making the body continuous.

19. Make-up of an Ideal City Board

If we were to embody in one statement all the important points which go to make up an ideal board for transacting the business of the schools and enacting the necessary legislation for their government under the city charter or the general State law, as the case may be, it would read about as follows: The board of education of a city should consist of three to seven members, varying with the size of the city concerned. These members, chosen at large from the city, should be elected by the people, and should serve for a term of three to five years without pay. One new member should be chosen each year, thus making the board a continuous body. They should be both politically and financially independent of other departments of municipal government. They should be empowered and required to choose experts to supervise (1) the work of instruc-

tion; (2) the business management and supplies; (3) the selection of sites and the erection and care of buildings; (4) attendance; (5) health and hygiene; (6) physical education, including playgrounds; (7) the segregation and care of special classes. These experts would better be under one executive head, especially in our largest cities. At any rate, the superintendents of instruction should have certain authority where their functions impinge upon the instructional work of the schools. In addition to these expert departments provision should be made for the appointment of suitable advisory committees or boards, which the board of education might call into council whenever the situation demanded or whenever any particular industrial or social interest of the city might desire a hearing with reference to the claims of such interest upon the educational work of the public schools.

Such a board, aided and supported by such advice and council as these experts and special advisory committees might give, and invested with proper authority along all fundamental lines essential to the establishment, organization, equipment, and maintenance of schools, should be able to function effectively in the accomplishment of that for which school boards are created—the training, under the most approved conditions and in the most scientific manner, of all the children and youth of the community which they are called to serve.

20. The State Type of Board

The third general type of educational board is a State board.¹ As stated earlier in this chapter, such boards

¹ This will include also such district boards of the State as might be called to preside over one of several normal schools, since their character is essentially the same.

may be established to direct general educational interests or to preside over the fiscal interests and formulate the general rules of operation of one or several State institutions. As has been pointed out, the practice is greatly varied. A different situation is presented when State-wide direction is to be substituted for city, district, or even county control. There is not that opportunity for direct participation which holds in case of the smaller units. There is felt something of the need of applying the principle of participation through representation in a larger and more general way than by direct selection by the people. At the same time the principle of a distinct jurisdiction and control for educational purposes may still be applied. The policy of separation from both ecclesiastical control and the limitations caused by the vicissitudes of party politics should be just as rigidly adhered to in case of the larger unit as of the smaller, and even more so.

21. Function of State Boards Confused Between Two Ideals

It seems that through the more or less uncertain course which our educational evolution has taken some curious incongruities have crept in. This is strikingly true of the manner in which the problem of organizing the administrative control of the State as an educational unit has been handled. Two radically opposing ideas have contended for popular support: (1) the rather imperialistic idea of complete control over the entire system of schools of a State to be vested in a central personage or board; (2) the democratic idea of representation of the people at every stage of the process, with diminishing authority in local affairs as distance from the people, because of wider area in the unit, has increased.

The relation of State supervision and State boards of education to the general administration of education seems to have been confused between these two ideals, and in the confusion has become more or less mixed with State politics, usually to the detriment of the cause of public education. A similar condition is seen in the present county control which prevails under county supervision in many of the States. In the case of New York we see the hand of Hamilton and his idea of centralized control. But even here the struggle was a long one. The regency established in the latter part of the eighteenth century was to have control of all educational institutions, including secondary schools. But no adequate provision was anywhere made for common schools. In 1812 there was established, as a result of this neglect of common schools, the office of State superintendent of common schools. This was abolished in 1821, and the secretary of State performed the functions of the superintendent as an *ex-officio* appointment. In 1854 the superintendency was again restored, and the dual system of an unrelated superintendent and board of regents continued until 1904, when the present scheme was projected which places all educational interests in the hands of the regency having as its executive the commissioner of education, whose tenure of office is subject to that body.

In New England a very different situation has developed. As a result of the educational revival led by Carter and Mann, there was established in Massachusetts, in 1837, a State board of education, with power to choose an executive. The first of these, known as secretary of the State board of education, was Horace Mann. In 1909 a new board was provided for in Massachusetts, and the name of the executive was changed to

that of commissioner. The State board is partially *ex officio* but mostly appointive in composition. The appointments are made by the governor. Two other States of New England, Connecticut and Rhode Island, have an executive appointed by a State board of education. The other three New England States have no boards but an executive appointed by the governor in two instances, Maine and New Hampshire, and by the general assembly in Vermont. In each of the three cases where boards are provided for these bodies possess but little real power or authority. The same is true of the executives of the remaining three States. In each of the six States the powers delegated are general and advisory rather than specifically giving authority over local school systems.

Here we see manifested a strong effort to combine with the idea of democratic control the larger correlating influence of a State-wide administrative body or office. Of the thirteen Southern States—Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia—eleven have State boards, mostly *ex officio*, and each has a superintendent, all but two of whom are chosen by popular election. Nine of the thirteen superintendents are *ex-officio* members of the State boards. The powers and duties in nearly every case are general and advisory, as in the case of the New England group. The idea of democratic control dominates.

Still another situation exists in Pennsylvania, where both a State board and a superintendent are appointed by the governor, and the superintendent is *ex-officio* president of the board. Thus the situation is turned about and the board is, in a sense, made the instrument of the superintendent. Out of these types, not forgetting

the idea expressed in the election of the first State superintendent by the State of New York, have come, through numerous and varied combinations and amendings, all the other types of organization of the State as a unit of control.

22. Trustees and Regents of State Institutions

There remains in this connection, however, that other type of State board, the trustees or regents having control over the business of conducting State educational institutions. Here again the practice varies somewhat widely among the States. Recent years have seen a tendency toward one State board to control all agencies for advanced, professional, or special education. As has already been seen, the State boards in New York and Oklahoma control practically all these higher educational agencies of these States. From this type the range extends down to a condition where there may exist not only a State board but also a separate board for each of several normal schools, for each of the subdivisions of the university, and for each institution for the education of special or defective and delinquent classes. Until recently, Florida as well as several of the North Central group of States would illustrate such a situation. The movement is fortunately away from such a policy.

23. Application of Principles of Control to State Types

If we carry over to this unit the application of the same general principles of control that have been emphasized in the discussion of preceding units we shall find that, after all the general confusion of ideals is replaced by the dominant features that stand out in a great majority of the States, we have not so far to go

to reach common ground. But we shall look in vain for any near approach to an ideal situation in this respect.

We shall probably agree that the State board should prevail, but not as to whether there should be one or several boards. We shall also approve an executive for this board or these boards; New England will furnish us the type. But how shall the board or boards be chosen, and what shall be their relation to the general State-wide system of education—elementary, secondary, higher, special?

24. How to Make State Boards Representative in Character

Adhering to the idea that the interest of society in an institution is to be determined largely by the extent of its participation in projecting its operations, especially where society is called upon to finance it, we are brought again to the principle of a more or less direct representation in management. To accomplish this, such boards should be chosen either by a representative body or by direct election by the people. Like city and county boards, the members should be selected from the State at large, and their selection should be non-partisan.

All things considered, popular election seems to have most in its favor. This may be in connection with general elections, but on a separate ballot with separate election officials to make the returns. One board, a State education board, would be preferable, if rightly constituted. Such a board should be relatively small, not exceeding seven members; should be a continuous organization serving without pay, except necessary expenses; should have control and oversight in a business way of all educational interests of State-wide scope;

should have the co-operation of several advisory boards representing: (a) institutions of higher learning, (b) schools for the training of teachers, both secondary and of college grade, (c) secondary schools, (d) elementary schools, (e) schools and institutions for the training of defective and delinquent classes; and should also have authority to appoint various executive, supervisory, or inspectorial officers, to act either independently or under one executive head—preferably the latter.

Such a board, with a competent executive staff and well-chosen advisory boards, would be a much more effective power for the development of the educational interests of a State than are most of the conditions now existing in the various States. It would command the confidence of the taxpayers as well as of the educational public. It would harmonize, economize, and correlate in all departments of educational endeavor. Through it laws would find interpretation and enforcement; all teachers would be duly certificated and their training assured; the financial burden and responsibility for education would be duly distributed; proper and sufficient means for efficient supervision and inspection would be provided; all interrelationships of different departments and institutions of education would be properly adjusted.

The alternative plan would seem to be four separate boards from the State at large, similarly chosen, but representing rather distinctly: (a) State institutions representing university work, (b) institutions for the training of teachers, (c) institutions for the training of defectives and delinquent classes, and (d) all State-wide interests of elementary and secondary education, as in a State department. In this case there would need to be one or more executives, especially for (d), and prob-

ably for (a) and (b). Some plan for co-operation would have to be found so as to avoid conflicts or overlapping at the points and lines of contact and interrelationship.

It must seem evident that, where at all practicable in view of established custom and vested interests, the plan of a unified central board responsible to the people and created solely for educational control is the more desirable one.

25. Necessity of Independence of State Boards

It remains only to be said that, just as in the case of cities, a State board should be independent of interference by the other departments of government having to do with political affairs. The idea of a State department of education subject to the vicissitudes and changes of partisan political machines is an anomaly in the realm of State systems of education. In this respect our statesmen have shown greater wisdom than our educators. For even in our national interests in education a national board with an executive staff and with various advisory commissions is more in accord with the whole spirit of our educational growth and aims than would be a secretary of education on a footing with other members of a presidential cabinet. Such a national board, with a clearly defined field of operation that should include oversight of all the great nation-wide and international interests and relationships of education, would become a power for accomplishment such as no secretaryship could ever hope to bring to the cause of education.

Thus the same principles, fundamentally, may apply to all the types of educational boards making up our general scheme of control. Perhaps no better summing up for this chapter can be found than the following,

on "The Functions of a Board of Education," from Professor Ernest C. Moore's report on "How New York City Administers Its Schools":¹ "Its functions," he says, "are not executive, but legislative, deliberative, advisory, and report-hearing. In the nature of the case being a lay body, it cannot itself run the schools. Instead, it is there to represent the people by performing for them certain delegated functions of selecting experts to run the schools, advising with them as to how the people would have public education conducted, examining into the sufficiency of their plans, passing upon their reports of results, and maintaining a general oversight over all that they do, upholding and protecting them in their work as long as it is satisfactory, and putting others in their places as soon as it ceases to be so."

¹ P. 89 of Doctor Moore's report.

CHAPTER VIII

MAINTENANCE AND OTHER FISCAL ASPECTS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

Reference has already been made to the fact that the early schools were a function of the church. This was true in early New England as well as in European countries. But it was a fundamental doctrine of the Reformation that the people should share in common the advantages of education. From this standpoint secularization of the schools was inevitable. Naturally, the next step was that of maintenance at public cost so that rich and poor alike might share freely in the benefits of learning.

I. Evolution of the Idea of Popular Support of Schools

In the general court edict of 1647 Massachusetts provided for the support of schools by taxation, subject to the option of the local taxing unit. The first provincial assembly of Massachusetts Bay, under the charter by King William granted in 1691, decreed again that "selectmen were empowered to assess the inhabitants of the towns for the charges of the ministry, the schools and the poor according to the agreement of the major part of inhabitants in town meeting."¹ Connecticut early followed a similar course. The movement for the establishment of grammar-schools throughout the colonies

¹ Quoted from Clews, "Education in the Colonies," p. 64, foot-note.

generally carried with it the idea of popular support. So also in the establishment of the first colleges, recourse was had, early in their history, to the use of public funds to aid in their support.

When later the growth of the settlements, together with increasing complexities of church control of education, brought about a growing demand for a more complete secularization of the schools, there was a period of decline in education. To tide over this period, land grants, which had been made from the beginning to a limited extent, now became more frequent. Commissioner Barnard, in his report for 1867-8, quotes from the report of Lyman Draper, superintendent of public instruction, as follows: "In the early history of almost every town in every State of New England, a portion of the public land was reserved, or special grants were made by individuals for 'gospel' and school purposes."

We are told also that Pennsylvania, in the law of 1802, sought to provide free education for the poor as a class. The attempt failed, but the failure gave rise to the idea of free schools for all classes.¹ History shows that in other States similar provisions were attempted. This calls attention to another cause for the decline in education to which reference has been made above. The well-to-do classes, especially in the plantation colonies, looked upon the idea of free education as a form of charity. The same idea revived with considerable force during reconstruction days in the South, when public schools were everywhere known as "poverty schools."

But gradually the idea of free schools at public cost gained in the minds of the people. The action of Congress in the ordinance of 1785, confirmed again in 1787,

¹ Carlton, F. T., "Economic Influences upon Educational Progress in the United States, 1820-50."

appropriating lands for the endowment of public schools, was a great gain to the cause of free public education. A strong prejudice against direct taxation was one of the traditions brought from England. This, together with the antagonism of some religious denominations whose adherents still believed education to be solely a function of the church, made the progress, in many localities, very slow. The timely aid which came through the national grant of school lands seems to have been almost necessary in order to stimulate the flagging sentiment of the people to the point of willingness to do their part in maintaining free schools for all.

2. Forces Favorable and Unfavorable

Carlton¹ finds four fundamental influences at work during the period from 1820 to 1850, all operating favorably for the cause of popular education supported by taxation. These were: (1) Growth of population and of manufactures. This caused a rapid increase of urban populations, at the same time disintegrating the earlier colonial industrial situation. Such a concentration of varied interests was favorable to the growth of free schools. (2) Extension of the suffrage. This put the ballot in the hands of the large mass of working men in the cities. Their thirst for equality of opportunity put them in favor of tax-supported schools. (3) The humanitarian movement, which was also an outgrowth of urban concentration of population. The various humane societies saw in public education the only effective panacea for many of the worst evils growing out of the sudden transfer of social and industrial centres from country, village, and hamlet to the crowded city. (4) The labor movement which gave to society and politics

¹ *Op. cit.*, pp. 29-44.

a newly organized force which must be reckoned with, and always on the side of equal opportunity for the working man's children.

The above forces are, even to-day, among the chief stimuli to social activity for the betterment of our educational system. Two other forces at least may be added which are of more recent development, or, to speak more accurately, have more recently emerged in social consciousness. The first of these is the abolition of the institution of slavery. Throughout the former slave territory a radical change has come about in favor of free public schools for all classes. A new industrial life is demanding a wider and higher intelligence. The problem is especially accentuated by the presence, in large numbers, of the descendants of former slaves. In this latter aspect, indeed, the problem is coming to be realized as nation wide.

A second condition which is now stirring the thought of all people, in all sections of our country, is to be found in the changed conditions in our agricultural interests. Individual landholders are rapidly diminishing in numbers. Tenant-farming is coming to be the rule. Along with this change is coming the realization that to keep pace in the production of farm crops with the rapid growth in population and in diversified industries, there must be more attention given to the scientific treatment of soils. This calls for a higher and more generally diffused intelligence on the part of those who operate the farms. At the same time, in order to keep intelligent men on the farms, more attention must be given to the needs and interests of country life. But all this means better schools for the rural communities. Landholders, who are probably the slowest and most reluctant of all classes to respond, are gradually awaken-

ing to the fact that good tax-supported rural schools, including high schools, bear a very direct relation to the prospective incomes from farm lands. Thus is one of the last and most persistent obstacles to free schools after the real American ideal slowly giving way.

3. Summary of Arguments

Referring once more to Carlton,¹ we cannot do better than to quote his list of arguments for and against free tax-supported schools. The arguments for are: "(1) Education is necessary for the preservation of free institutions. (2) It prevents class differentiation. (3) Education tends to diminish crime. (4) It reduces the amount of poverty and distress. (5) It increases production. (6) Education is the natural right of all individuals. (7) Education will rectify false ideas as to unjust distribution of wealth."

The arguments given as against the proposition are: "(1) Free education for all increases taxation unduly. (2) Taxation for the purposes of maintaining free public schools is a violation of the rights of the individual. (3) A public system of schools was opposed by certain religious elements because of possible injury to particular religious sects. (4) Certain non-English-speaking people opposed the public schools because they feared that their own tongue would be supplanted by the English language. (5) Impractical legislation caused much opposition. (6) It was urged that education would not benefit the masses. (7) Injury to the private school was alleged. (8) Public education tends to break down social barriers." The same writer suggests another adverse influence in the form of the "increasing opportunity to put children to work in factories."

¹ *Op. cit.*, pp. 45-46.

This gives us a very clear and full presentation of the principles and forces which were lined up in the struggle which was waged in the early days of American free schools. In 1867-8 we find United States Commissioner Henry Barnard ¹ quoting various opinions concerning the American policy in regard to taxation for educational purposes. The substance of these opinions may be summed up as follows: The exercise of power over education by the State is indispensable to the preservation of society. This is not so merely as a matter of expediency or economy, it is a question of humanity also. Free public education is necessary in order to preserve representative government. Even higher education should receive the fostering care of the State in order to provide for the maintenance of schools of standards superior to those already established.

In 1889, in the first report issued under William T. Harris as commissioner,² is given a long list of reasons why parochial schools should have a due proportion of the public school funds. The first of these reads: "Because all who pay taxes ought to share in the benefits of taxation." On the following page of the same report is given a reply to this sentiment which is worthy of note. This reply was published by the *Journal of Education* and is quoted from the 1888-9 commissioner's report.³ "In regard to the assertion that 'all who pay taxes ought to share in the benefits of taxation,' the *Journal of Education* says: 'This is in no sense an American axiom or principle. It has nothing whatever to do with the policy of American life. We do not tax a man, but his property. We do not tax the property in pro-

¹ Report of Com. of Education, 1867-8, pp. 323-330.

² Report of Com. of Education, 1888-9, p. 634.

³ U. S. Com. Report, 1888-9, p. 635.

portion to the share of benefit the owner is to receive. A man's property may be taxed so that thousands of dollars shall be used in highways, though he may never be able to ride upon them or see them, and may have no family to enjoy them; thousands may be used for schools, though he was never in a public school a day and may have no child to attend; thousands may go to county buildings, State buildings, etc. When a man's property is taxed there is no contract, direct or indirect, made or implied, that he is personally to be considered in its use.'"

Thus an old, old controversy has come down even to the present day. So wrapped in traditions have the schools been from the beginning that it has been very hard for some classes of people to grasp the force of such arguments as the above. The habit of looking upon education as a strictly personal affair, vested interests, religious prejudice, all these and more have stood, and still stand, to a considerable extent, in the way of a complete readjustment of ideas in strict harmony with the real needs of the situation.

4. Need of More Money for Schools

"We ought to spend more public money on schools, because the present expenditures do not produce all the good results which were expected and may reasonably be aimed at," wrote President Eliot a few years ago.¹ In this connection he shows wherein the schools have failed and also what new things they have done and are undertaking to do. Whoever gives a little thought to the matter will readily see that if the schools are to be brought to that state of efficiency which the importance of their service to society requires, and at

¹ Eliot, Charles W., "More Money for the Public Schools," p. 25.

the same time provide for the ever-increasing demands in response to our industrial needs, the people must put much more money into the enterprise than they are now doing. And not only must there be more money, but we must also find a means for the more equitable distribution of it.

When the nation is believed to be in need of battle-ships, coast defences, or waterway improvements there are abundant resources from the revenues which the people pay in the form of indirect taxes. There are always comments of an unfavorable character by a few who realize the true source of the funds which are to pay for these improvements; but the vast majority of the people go on paying without thinking much about it. When a direct tax is to be levied, however, the matter is different. Each individual is called upon directly to pay over a certain sum for a specific purpose. At once all the old Anglo-Saxon prejudice is aroused and we hear people talking about the enormous taxes they have to pay, and especially for schools. If they would trouble to look into the matter they would find that there is no other possible way by which good schooling can be had at so low a rate, based on per-capita cost.

On this last point Mr. C. M. Woodward has compiled some interesting comparative statistics.¹ He finds that in Saint Louis the schools cost \$.95 for every dollar paid for police service. In Boston the ratio is \$1.73 to \$1.00; in New York, \$1.93 to \$1.00; in San Francisco, \$1.48 to \$1.00; in Detroit, \$1.60 to \$1.00, etc. Many other similar comparisons might easily be made. It seems evident from this that, when considered value for

¹ The following figures are quoted from President Eliot's book previously referred to.

value, our schools are not so expensive as the tax haters sometimes try to make them appear.

5. Advantages and Disadvantages of Direct Taxation

From the point of view of general public satisfaction, it would be a good thing if the entire cost of education might somehow be carried through indirect taxation. But there is another very important consideration which needs to be kept before us here. The call upon the people of a community for direct participation in the cost of education has a very wholesome educational influence upon public sentiment in regard to schools and their real value. What people pay for directly they are inclined to examine into pretty carefully in order to understand what the money is going for. Without such a direct proprietary interest in our schools, public sentiment would be likely to lag far behind the present stage of enlightenment, inadequate as that sometimes seems to be. Such a situation, in case of even a slight reactionary movement, might prove disastrous to educational progress.

What we probably should have is a combination of the two forms of taxation, which would transfer a considerable portion of the burden to indirect sources of revenue but still leave each community to do its best up to a certain limit. This we shall discuss more fully a little further on.

6. Inadequacy and Inequalities in Support of Schools

The large increase in the cost of education, together with the changes now in progress and everywhere desired in the shape of industrial training in our schools, brings us face to face with the problem of maintenance

on an entirely new basis as far as aggregate cost is concerned. This problem is accentuated with the increasing difficulty experienced in many localities in securing teachers enough who are even reasonably well prepared for the work which the people are demanding to have done in the schools.

At present the taxing units for the support of schools are district, township, county, city or town, State, and nation. By far the greater part of the cost of the elementary and high schools is borne by districts. In a number of States provision is made for township or county support of high schools. Several of the States also subsidize the high schools and elementary schools. The States, chiefly, support normal schools (except those of cities), universities, and special institutions for the training of defectives and delinquents. The nation, through land grants, has aided in the support of common schools and universities, and is now contributing direct appropriations to the support of education in agriculture and military training under State administration.

The inequalities and inadequacy of support in many instances are too well known to need any very full account here. Professor E. P. Cubberley, in his work on "School Funds and Their Apportionment,"¹ has done a great service of enlightenment to school people and the country at large. Not only has he pointed out the inequalities existing in various typical States and the futility of seeking to depend upon permanent endowment funds, but he has also made valuable suggestions as to ways and means of adjusting the inequalities and increasing the educational resources on a more equitable basis.

¹ Cubberley, E. P., "School Funds and Their Apportionment," pp. 255, 1906, "Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education."

In order to get before us in brief form the wide range of difference in ability of different sections in a State, and also of different States and sections of the United States, the following table has been compiled from sta-

ASSESSED VALUATION OF REAL PROPERTY PER CAPITA, AVERAGE, HIGHEST COUNTY AND LOWEST COUNTY FOR EACH STATE; EXPENDITURE PER CAPITA OF AVERAGE ATTENDANCE AT SCHOOL, AND AVERAGE LENGTH OF SCHOOL YEAR (APPROX.) IN MONTHS.

STATE	Per-Capita Assessed Valuation, Average of the State	Per-Capita Assessed Valuation, Highest County	Per-Capita Assessed Valuation, Lowest County	Expenditure for Schools per Capita Based on Average Attendance	Approximate Average Length of School Term in Months	Relative Standing Considering Last Two Items
Massachusetts..	\$825.46	\$1,538.62	\$443.48	\$44.49	9.3	88.1
Connecticut....	562.75	670.22	361.00	34.71	9.2	68.0
New Jersey.....	411.39	461.09	279.99	51.03	9.2	100.0
Virginia.....	171.04	526.02	75.32	17.02	6.4	23.2
South Carolina..	76.97	160.42	38.02	8.26	3.5	6.1
Mississippi.....	84.65	168.02	51.13	9.49	7.2	14.6
Iowa.....	176.19	261.61	116.79	33.01	8.6	60.5
Nebraska.....	104.28	251.24	34.09	37.63	7.6	60.9
Oregon.....	212.67	285.19	110.92	38.51	6.9	56.6

tistics of the census for 1900 and from the reports of the United States commissioner of education. Making allowance for some discrepancies which were unavoidable, these figures still serve the purpose very well. In the first three columns may be seen the variations in any one of the States given. This is assuming that in each case we are thinking of an ad valorem tax levy for the support of public schools.

Reading these columns down instead of across, and taking them in connection with columns four, five, and six, we get a comparison by States. And if we take

them in groups of three, as they are arranged, we get a comparative view of the different sections of the United States.

In a similar manner we might compare the districts of a given group of townships or counties in any one or more States and find similar differences as to the financial ability of the people as compared with the number of children to be cared for.

It seems evident enough that on a direct ad valorem tax alone, by districts, counties, or States, it is quite impossible to get even an approach to an equitable distribution of the cost of this chief of our national defences.

7. Important Principles Involved

Two very important principles are here involved: (1) Where an enterprise is not only worthy of being successfully promoted, but also at the same time is necessary to our social well-being and to the perpetuation of our essential institutions as a nation, adequate means should be supplied, to the extent of the financial ability of society, for rendering this department of the public service thoroughly efficient. Surely no one can question for a moment the financial ability of society in this instance. (2) If public education as a common charge upon all the people is defensible and just, then ways should be found for a much more equitable distribution of the benefits of education to all classes and sections alike. Only by some such balancing-up method will it be possible for society to attain the ends sought. For ignorance and vice in one part of the social body is likely to endanger the vitality of the entire body.

8. Basis for State Support

What, then, may be done further than has already been undertaken, in order to bring about the desired improve-

ments in our scheme for maintaining public education? Whatever plan we may undertake to put in operation, we should not overlook the fact that local initiative in establishing and maintaining schools should be encouraged rather than weakened or supplanted. Just here we are favored by the present situation in the development of our educational needs. We have come to the point where there is a strong demand for vocational training. Indeed, we may say that one of the chief concerns as regards increased revenues is the desire thus to widen the scope of our educational system.

The differentiation of work which all this suggests furnishes a natural "line of cleavage" as between what the people of a given district may do and what the State or nation may at least assist in doing. Of the two functions of education—the training of the mind and the training in industrial intelligence and skill—it is especially desirable that the former should be kept up largely by the more immediate community. On the relative importance of these two lines of training, from the standpoint of the State, Superintendent Fred M. Campbell, of Oakland, wrote, in 1888, as follows:¹ "One of these notions is that the training of a boy's hands to a particular trade is of equal importance, *to the State*, with the education of the mind. The truth of the matter is simply this: such a training of the hands is a good and useful thing, especially to the individual concerned, and there are a number of pressing necessities which will drive men up to this; but the education of the *mind* is an absolutely indispensable thing for the well-being of the State, and yet there are no such immediate pressing urgencies felt by the individual and driving him up to furnish this to his children. Accordingly, while the one can be left to the individual, the other must be secured,

¹ Quoted from Report of U. S. Commissioner, 1888-9, 1 : 618.

beyond all peradventure, by the State. Mark the essential difference: The necessity of getting a living forces itself upon every man for his own immediate selfish interest. The necessity of educating his children has no such visible urgency upon the ignorant man—that is, for the interest of others rather than his own selfish interest—and the consequences, even to them, are too remote and far-reaching to be appreciable by his dull mind. No doubt the State would be better off for having an abundance of skilled artisans, but intelligent men it *must* have or it is on the broad road to ruin.”

Allowing for the change in educational outlook which has come about in the twenty-five years that have elapsed since the above writing, there is still an important principle therein stated which holds good. And it is the more fundamental need which he points out that should be kept constantly alive in the minds of all the people. At first thought such a statement seems antagonistic to the sentiment of the quotation. But if we consider the State as the lawgiver in the case, and if the State fixes the laws so as to permit no evasion, participation in the direct maintenance of the schools for training to intelligence is about the only force that will ever elevate the masses to the required standards of intelligence. Generally speaking, then, we may leave the burden of vocational training more largely to the State and nation, while the smaller units of educational control should be required to care more especially for the mental training of the children and youth.

9. A Working Scheme of Maintenance

With the above general principles in mind we may outline a working scheme for the maintenance of a balanced and equitable educational system. As a basis we

shall take the generally recognized units of control and their relation to the various classes of schools which serve them.

I. Elementary schools and high schools. 1. The elementary schools are by their very nature, and by reason of the ages to which they offer instruction, more nearly local in their ministration than any other class.

2. The high schools serve fewer as to numbers, proportionately, and should therefore extend their service over a wider territory. This principle is readily recognized in large cities where a number of elementary schools are tributary to a central high school. Not until this same principle is recognized generally in smaller cities and towns and in rural communities shall we be able to maintain, economically, free high schools for all. To secure such a result a larger unit, the county, might better have control of the districting for high-school purposes. A long step toward equalization of cost would be taken if the county could also be made the local taxing unit for the support of high schools.

II. State institutions. These include normal schools, universities, and institutions for the training of the defective and delinquent classes. The first two of these offer a service that is at least as much national as State. They are, no doubt, best managed and controlled by the States in which they are located; but the national character of their service should be recognized more fully when it comes to maintenance.

Taking the above grouping as a basis, how shall we divide the cost of maintaining them?

1. The cost of maintaining the elementary schools should rest largely with local communities. To the local funds there would, of course, be added any distributable funds arising from permanent endowment funds held by

the State or appropriated, by special enactment, for such purpose.

In case of weak districts unable to maintain efficient schools without aid, according to minimum standards which each State should determine, the State should add such funds as shall enable these financially weak communities to bring their schools up to the efficiency standard, at least so far as this may be determined by the length of the school term.

Wherever it is found advisable, after careful experimenting by the State, to establish vocational courses in elementary schools the State should at least provide for the proper supervision of this work.

2. The high schools should be maintained chiefly by the enlarged districts mentioned above or out of the general county high-school fund if such a plan of administration might become feasible. For the teaching of vocational subjects and the equipment for the same, however, including, where necessary, some professional training for those who go out from high schools to teach, the State should provide a liberal subsidy.

As in the case of elementary schools, should occasion arise under any system of administration in use, the State should aid high schools unable to do so from local sources to maintain minimum standards of efficiency as determined by the State. This should be usually on the condition that the enrollment and the community ministered to by a given school are large enough to justify its maintenance as a fully organized high school.

3. In the case of normal schools and all schools and departments of State universities for training in professions which relate directly to general public service not confined within State boundaries, the Federal Government should give liberal subsidies. In this way the

States would be relieved of part of the burden now borne by them, and would thus be enabled to turn more of the State revenues to the purposes above designated in the interests of elementary and high-school education.

10. Application in Case of Federal Aid

It would follow from our previous reasoning, also, that federal aid should be extended to States which are financially unable to maintain efficient educational facilities in any of the essential departments of such public service as determined by the recognized standards of a majority of States. For instance, federal aid might very properly relieve the States of the South included in the black belt largely of the burden of supporting schools for the negroes. This should not mean, however, that the administration of these schools should be taken out of the hands of the local State authorities.

In both State and federal aid all grants of subsidies should be administered by the districts and States, respectively, to which such grants are made. But the granting of them should be conditioned in each case on (1) a requirement that districts or institutions thus subsidized first show a determination to do their utmost toward maintaining their work on a basis of efficiency, and (2) on the character of the distributing and checking system provided by each State as to its probable effectiveness in insuring the best possible use of the funds provided and for the purposes originally intended.

11. Increasing Demands and Fixed Rates of Levy

Whatever may be the sources of funds for educational purposes, the increase from year to year should keep pace (1) with the increase in attendance; (2) with the

increased cost of equipment due to the development of vocational work; (3) with the increase in the cost of instruction and other service needed due to the higher standards of preparation required and to the increased cost of living. Professor Moore, in his analysis of financial conditions in New York City, points out that the increase in appropriations for educational purposes has not kept up with the increase in attendance. Such a condition would show a distinct retrogression unless there could be shown a previous condition of wastefulness the correction of which would account for the seeming shortage in appropriations. The New York situation seemingly does not offer any such explanation.

Fixed rates of valuation, together with a constitutional or legislative provision setting a maximum limit beyond which a community may not go in levying funds for the support of schools, are sure to bring some school systems to grief. In several of the States such conditions exist to-day. Because of the inequalities of valuation due to physical or economic conditions, sections of States, and even entire States, may be placed in the position of being unable to do what the people, under the changed conditions, would willingly undertake, because they have no legal authority to carry forward the work and pay the price.

Ways should be found by which such a sane popular demand might always be realized. As far as any excessive taxing is concerned, the matter would regulate itself. People would not impoverish themselves or go beyond the limit of a sound credit basis in their efforts to secure for their children the best possible school facilities.

12. Justice and Wisdom in Federal Aid

There are both justice and wisdom in the plan for a larger distribution of funds for educational purposes by the Federal Government. This course is wise because it will relieve somewhat the demands upon the people for a larger direct local tax for the support of various industrial lines of education. It is just because much of our increased wealth is due directly to the increased intelligence resulting from the training of our schools and colleges. The tax on corporations might, much of it, be very justly turned back to the States whence it comes. Education, scientific research, should have a due proportion of the results of increased production due to the application of scientific principles and general intelligence which the schools have made possible.

13. Problem of Compensation of Teachers

The most important problem and at the same time the one most difficult to solve in financing our educational system is the problem of the compensation of teachers. This involves not only salaries but also the pension problem. The advance in the cost of living during the last decade has been very trying to the resources of those living on salaries. A stipend representing a fixed annual compensation is not readily adjustable to such changes in the prices of the commodities essential to life. Always the advance in salary is sure to lag a little behind the increased demands upon the salary-replenished purse. On no class, perhaps, does this fall more heavily than upon the teachers of our public schools and higher institutions of learning. One chief reason for this is that they are practically compelled to be idle for about one fourth of the year, if, indeed, they are not

put to some special extra expense, in order to meet the requirements of their profession, by attending conventions or studying at some institution of higher learning through its summer session.

14. Reasons for Present Inadequacy

The increased demands upon the teacher due to the advance made in the character of the work, both of instruction and supervision, in our schools is no small item for the teacher to meet. Other professions do not require such a constant strain and added expenses from year to year. The fact that the summer sessions above referred to are supported largely by teachers is an un-failing evidence that this is true.

An investigation in regard to teachers' salaries and cost of living, provided for by the National Education Association at its 1911 meeting, was reported in January, 1913. This report seems to indicate that in a great many cases the salaries of teachers have not advanced at a pace equal to the advance in cost of the staple commodities of life, including rents, food, and clothing. If this conclusion is correct, it would leave the purchasing power of salaries now paid in most instances considerably below that of a decade ago, while the amount of training demanded of teachers by society has materially advanced in the same period of time.

This condition not only works a hardship upon a class of hard-working people, but it also threatens at least a temporary breakdown in the standards of education now attained, inadequate as these are when compared with our social and industrial needs. Such a state of things comes about through the necessity of filling too large a percentage of teaching positions with immature and inadequately trained teachers. The whole thing shows

up badly for the financial management of our educational system. Not a little of this maladministration of school finances is undoubtedly due to the limitations placed by legislation enacted to fit conditions that existed forty or fifty years ago.

15. The Question of Arbitrary Adjustments of Salaries

The whole matter of compensation of teachers is still in a chaotic condition. Indiana has undertaken to remedy the situation by legislation, fixing minimum rates based on the teacher's qualifications. The fixing of salary schedules by cities is an arbitrary process employed in an effort to hold teachers in service and to be able to attract a sufficient number of those well qualified to fill the ranks where depletion in the ranks and growth of the schools have together caused vacancies.

The elements of the problem of salaries for teachers as it now presents itself are: (1) Are the present schedules sufficient to command the services of enough men and women qualified for the work to supply the demand? (2) If the present scale is too low, to what extent is this brought about by the competition of those who are merely transients in the field or whose qualifications are more or less below the minimum standards of efficiency? Is it desirable to undertake, by legislation, under existing conditions, to establish arbitrary standards, thus ignoring the economic law of supply and demand?

Seemingly all our experience and all our knowledge of the laws controlling the development of children and youth emphasize the need, first of all, of maintaining the highest practicable state of efficiency in our teaching service. To do this we must set the minimum of preparation of teachers as high as the possibility of main-

taining such a standard will permit. Next, we must seek to eliminate, as speedily and effectively as possible, that element of inefficiency which arises chiefly from lack of experience.

If once these two things can be cared for in such a secure fashion that society will not fall back to lower standards rather than pay the price of competent men and women, will not the salaries of teachers, along with those of other occupations, adjust themselves fairly well by the free operation of the law of the market?

In attempting to answer this general interrogation, there are two modifying conditions which call for some consideration at this point. The first of these is to be found in society's estimate of the relatively fundamental necessity of schools and education. Wherever we find a social group of sufficient size to maintain a school and which is thoroughly imbued with the idea that efficient schools are actually essential to both local and national well-being, we usually find a high grade of teachers' qualifications demanded, and at correspondingly good salaries. On the other hand, if salaries are low, and with no arbitrary restriction on the community's finances, the people's ideals as to the importance and necessity of efficient schools will very generally be found to be low if not absolutely vague and unformed. It will thus readily appear that local ideals and standards may become a powerful influence upon the market so far as teaching service is concerned.

Again, the market conditions are bound to be affected by the fact that so large a proportion of women enter upon the work of teaching, presumably because of the relatively small number of occupations open to women. This naturally tends to swell the supply abnormally as compared with the demand.

On both these conditions the establishment of a higher minimum qualification standard would take effect. In the case of low ideals in a given community, the extent to which the correspondingly low standards of teaching might prevail would be reduced by the setting up of this arbitrary limitation as to who might be permitted to teach. With reference to the influx of women beyond normal, the higher standards would tend to shut out many by making it more difficult for them to qualify.

Thus we find that with a limitation calculated to secure reasonable efficiency placed upon teachers' qualifications, the law of supply and demand would tend to regulate the compensation of teachers, except that there would probably still continue to be at least a slight difference in favor of the men, owing to the relative difficulty in securing a sufficient number for positions usually assigned to male teachers.

This is assuming that society, in recognizing the importance of maintaining schools on a basis of efficiency, would remove all arbitrary restrictions on the rights of the people of any school district to levy a sufficient amount to enable the board to pay the prices necessary to obtain the services of efficient teachers.

16. Effect of Salary Conditions on Shortage of Teachers

There is no doubt that the present marked shortage of qualified teachers is due largely to the inadequacy of current salaries as an inducement for young men and young women to enter the teaching field. The standards for financing the schools having once become fixed, it is difficult indeed to induce public opinion to show a willingness to meet the necessary increase in the cost of maintaining true standards of teaching.

17. Teachers' Pensions as a Remedy

Two special methods have been proposed as an offset to this condition with regard to the pay of teachers: The first, that of pensions, is very commonly practised. According to statistics furnished by William H. Hood,¹ of the Bureau of Education, there are now twenty-six States and several of the larger cities acting independently that have teachers' pension laws. These laws are classified under three heads: non-contributory, *i. e.*, by the State without any payment out of the teacher's salary; compulsory-contributory, or laws requiring teachers to pay a certain sum or percentage of their salaries annually; voluntary-contributory, or payment required only of those desiring to take advantage of such a plan. Most of the State laws are of the compulsory-contributory type.

In connection with these laws there is generally lacking any plan by which funds paid in may be returned to a teacher, who, for any cause, drops out of a school system. Such a condition would seem to work injury in two ways: First of all it is not just to the one who has paid and may not participate in any benefit. In the second place, it is apt to create a feeling that, because of the establishment of such a relationship, a teacher may not be removed from the system. In this case it might easily result in harm to the school through the retention of teachers no longer useful as teachers but not yet entitled to an annuity. The element of injustice might be removed if provision were made for payment to a teacher transferring to another field a certain moiety of the amount paid in under the contract from which he is withdrawing.

¹ See "Report on Teachers' Salaries and Cost of Living," N. E. A., 1913.

There is a weak point in this whole theory of pensions. The idea of depending on some source other than one's own industry and frugality is apt to prove enervating to many, although certainly not to all, of a teaching corps looking forward to such retirement on pay as an assured fact. It would seem better to make the pay so as to leave a margin, over and above the total cost of living, sufficient to enable the individual to provide for his or her own future. In the few exceptional cases, due to some misfortune resulting from causes beyond individual control, special pensions should be provided as occasion arises. Otherwise each one should care for himself. But public sentiment advances slowly and there seems to be no immediate prospect for the realization of any such ideal situation.

18. Doctor Pritchett on Teachers' Pensions

Meanwhile a situation exists which certainly needs to be met, and met effectively. Doctor Henry S. Pritchett in his seventh annual report¹ for the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching thus states the problem:

One of the great weaknesses of our public-school system to-day lies in the fact that only a small number of men can be induced to undertake permanent careers in it. Before we can hope for the best results in education, we must make a career for an ambitious man possible in the public schools. To do this, dignity and security must be given to the teacher's calling, and probably no one step could be taken which will be more influential in inducing able men and women to adopt the profession of the teacher in the public schools than to attach to that vocation the security which a pension brings.

¹ Seventh Annual Report, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1912, p. 70.

Doctor Pritchett then goes on to ask the four questions which, at the least consideration, the legislator called upon to enact laws in regard to the pensioning of teachers should wish to have answered. The first three of these questions with proposed answers are:¹

1. Upon what grounds are pensions for public-school teachers justified?

Pensions are justified upon practically two grounds: first, those of a larger social justice; secondly, as a necessary condition to an efficient public-school system.

The first of these reasons applies in marked measure to pensions like that of the teacher. Society, as at present organized, desires to get the best service it can out of the various vocations and callings into which men are naturally distributed. In some of these callings great prizes are to be won, and these serve as incentives for high performance. In other callings, like that of the teacher, there are no large prizes in the way of pecuniary reward (it would be a wise thing in society to create such). Society desires to obtain of the teacher a service quite out of proportion to the pay which he receives. Intelligence, devotion, high character—all are necessary, and the State seeks to obtain them at an average salary of \$500 a year. It is clear that, if the State is to receive such service, some protection for old age and disability must be had, if the best men and women are to be induced to enter upon such a calling as a life work.

Secondly, from the standpoint of efficiency in organization, whether a governmental one or a business one, there must be some means for retiring, decently and justly, worn-out servants. In the past we have in most cases turned out men and women no longer able to teach, but the conscience of our time does not permit such action. Out-worn teachers remain to the direct injury of the pupils themselves. As a matter of efficiency, some humane method of retirement for public-school teachers is necessary.

These two reasons for the establishment of pensions for the teachers in State schools are sound and unanswerable.

2. Assuming that pensions ought to be paid, who ought to pay them?

¹ *Op. cit.*, pp. 71-4.

Three plans for securing protection against disability and the weakness of old age are proposed: a pension system borne wholly by the employer, a pension system borne wholly by the employee, a pension system conducted jointly by both employer and employee and supported by their joint contributions.

While there are some variations of opinion among those who have studied the question, the overwhelming weight of opinion is in favor of the third plan.

A system of pensions depending on the contributions of employees alone amounts practically to a compulsory system of saving. In order that the benefits may be large enough to form a basis for retirement, the contribution must be so large as to be practically prohibitory.

The third plan seems to me justified not only on the ground of equity but upon the ground of self-interest, whether the employer be a corporation or a government. All salaries such as teachers' are relatively low, and, while the question of a just salary must not be confused with the equity involved in a relief plan, it nevertheless remains true that the general equities of service demand that a part of the pension of a servant be borne by the employer. A State still owes to the faithful teacher something after it has paid his salary. He has been required to regulate his life in large measure for the common interest. In addition, the employer, whether a corporation or a State, secures a higher efficiency by a well-ordered pension system. Finally, only by such joint action can be secured the right co-operation between employer and employee. On all three grounds—the ground of general equity, of increased efficiency, of a better social co-operation—it is desirable that a system of pensions rest upon the joint contribution of the employer and the employee.

I assume that on the whole it is fair for the teacher to bear half the cost of the annuity and the State the other half.

3. What form of pension system would it be fair to adopt, having regard both to the individual teacher and to the State?

The form of pension system at once just and feasible would involve the consideration of many details, but at least these general principles may be assumed as proven:

(a) The pension obligation should be compulsory upon every teacher who enters the service.

(b) The amount of the contribution should be determined by thorough actuarial investigation, but each teacher shall form a

unit, and the annuity which he is to receive shall be based upon his own payment plus that granted by the State. Such an arrangement is just and fair and is capable of actuarial computation. Every individual, whether he survives, resigns, or dies, thus furnishes the basis for the action taken.

(c) Contributions levied upon teachers who resign or are dismissed must be returned with a moderate interest—say three per cent—and similar returns must be made to the widows or heirs of those who die.

(d) A central administration for the pensions of all public-school teachers should be provided, constituted of a small commission serving without salary, with a paid executive who should at the same time be a competent actuary.

“What will such a pension system cost the individual teacher and what will it cost the State?” is the fourth question suggested. This is a question not readily answered from our present knowledge of the subject. After assuming a typical condition the writer proceeds to an estimate of the relative cost to the individual and to the State. He assumes that the pension is to provide solely for old age, fixing the limit at sixty. He reasons that this will “take care of the main load which affects both the question of justice and the question of efficiency.”

19. A Second Partial Remedy

The second method which has been proposed as an offset to the inadequacy of salaries, or, to put it in a different form, as an inducement for those lacking means to prepare for the work of teaching, is that the State should pay prospective teachers just as military and naval cadets are paid for attending the respective institutions set up by the Federal Government for training in the arts of war.¹ If properly hedged about by con-

¹ See Bagley, W. C., Editorial, *School and Home Education*, Nov., 1911, pp. 92-5.

ditions on which individuals are selected for such work, this plan should be readily feasible and seemingly just and fair to all.

20. The Problem of School Accounting

Finally, there remains the question of accounting as related to the financing of schools and all educational institutions. According to studies made by H. E. Bard,¹ the matter of efficient expert accounting seems to be very generally neglected by city school districts. "In general," he says, "it is probably true that in no other field of legislation affecting the city school district are the measures enacted less complete and less constructive." If such a condition exists in the cities, what can be said of the rural and village districts, representing a majority of the people, where no adequate provision is made for any accounting other than that necessary to furnish a general balance-sheet for generally inexpert auditing? Those who are familiar with the methods of handling educational funds as generally practised must realize how great and how significant a fact Doctor Bard has pointed out.

In the first place, in many of the States township officials hold permanent funds, the proceeds of school lands, which with or without any adequate system of checking are loaned out in small sums. How much more effective such funds might become if consolidated for a county and put into the hands of trusted experts whose business it should be to exploit these funds on a safe basis solely for the benefit of the schools and not for any private gain or business advantage of individuals or corporations. The compensations required for such service would be a

¹ Bard, "The City School District; Statutory Provisions for Organization and Fiscal Affairs," Teachers College, Columbia University, 1909.

mere bagatelle as compared with the loss which annually accrues under the present methods of management of these funds. Here, again, we see what a gain might result in the fiscal affairs of education if we had a centralized county board in control of rural education.

21. The Saint Louis Plan of Accounting

As regards accounting by city boards, the following, quoted from the charter of the board of education of the city of Saint Louis,¹ may be taken as a type of the kind of provision that should be in operation in every city school system:

The board shall appoint a competent person as auditor, who shall serve for a term of four years and give bond in the sum of ten thousand dollars. His salary shall not be reduced during the term of his office, and he may be removed for cause by a two-thirds vote of the entire board. He shall be the general accountant of the board, and preserve in his office all accounts, vouchers, and contracts pertaining to school affairs. It shall be his duty to examine and audit all accounts and demands against the board and to certify their correctness to the secretary and treasurer of the board. He shall adopt a proper system of double-entry bookkeeping. He shall require settlement of accounts to be verified by affidavit whenever he thinks proper, and shall keep the accounts of the school in a systematic and orderly manner. No claim or demand shall be audited unless it is authorized by law and the rules of the board and be in proper and fully itemized form, and unless the amount required for the payment of the sum shall have heretofore been appropriated by the board.

22. Need of Publicity in Accounting

Some such provision as the above, if put into operation in all our cities and, through a county unit organi-

¹ Bard, H. E., *op. cit.*, p. 107.

zation, in all our rural schools, would undoubtedly result in great saving. But it should not stop here. There should be a careful study of the relation between expenditure and achievement by the schools. Every notable increase for additions or innovations should account for itself. There should be not only the general fiscal balance-sheet, open to all the people, but also a balance-sheet showing gain or loss in results. This, too, should be for all the people to read.

While local districts may be empowered, through their boards, to levy, collect, and disburse funds, it should not be forgotten that all this is a State-wide rather than a local interest. The State should see to it that a proper accounting and auditing system is provided, perhaps more properly acting independently of any board.

CHAPTER IX

PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

The administration of a system of public education in the process of instructing children and youth calls for a special equipment on the part of those who are to instruct or supervise the work of instruction. In this respect education is like any other organized undertaking which involves in its successful execution both the skill of the craftsman and the knowledge and ability of the professional man in the application of principles as an essential to the accomplishment of the ends in view. The unsettled question in all lands as to the kind and amount of training required for a teacher or supervisor of a certain grade centres in the adjustment of the proportion of skill and of professional ability which each should possess.

1. Skill and Professional Knowledge Required

To very many people, even among those who teach, the chief, if not the sole, consideration is that of skill. To as many others, and especially among the professional classes, the only essential requirement is professional knowledge. Given a thorough grounding in this, and the art will take care of itself. To the educational expert called to the responsible task of nominating teachers to serve under him who can maintain the standards of efficiency demanded by a watchful and jealous public, the

problem is more acute. He realizes fully the value of professional standards in the training of teachers, especially as it concerns the forward movement of his educational system. But the immediate need he knows must require a liberal amount of good craftsmanship. He readily appreciates the fact that, other things equal, after much blundering and some downright failures, the broader professional training will gain the ascendancy if it once survives complete shipwreck. But he is also keenly alive to the fact that the patrons of his school will resent having their children made the objects of crude experimentation. Furthermore, he readily comprehends the danger, from such a cause, of reaction against the frontier lines of every progressive movement he has been able to set going.

"Give us teachers who can manage the school," say the laymen, "and we care not so very much how extensive or how limited their preparation may be." "We need men and women of broad education as our teachers," say the experts, "but they must know how to use their knowledge and to exercise tact according to the particular work they are called to do." Yet, still the typical academic college professor tilts his head or looks wise. "Our fathers and grandfathers before us taught, and we ourselves teach," he says, "because we know our subjects and are in love with learning for its own sake." And so, while the doctors disagree, our schools continue to be taught largely by novices in the art of teaching. In many cases even our supervisors are without that wisdom concerning the work they are called to direct which they must win, if at all, through experimenting.

2. Public Policy to Train Teachers at Public Expense

All of the States in the Union are now committed to the policy and practice of training teachers at public expense. The people generally, and the educational public in particular, readily recognize the right and the necessity of such training in order successfully to maintain an efficient system of public education. We have our State normal schools and teachers' colleges, our university departments and schools of education, and, in many instances, educational courses in high schools, to say nothing of our teachers' institutes and the numerous voluntary associations of teachers for mutual betterment of their work. Still the situation is far from satisfactory. It is not even moderately so, except in a few States where greater progress has been made toward the solution of this difficult problem.

3. Relative Importance of Skill and Knowledge

It is probably true, as suggested a short time ago by Elmer E. Brown, then United States Commissioner of Education,¹ that in the earlier stages of education skill is relatively of greater importance, while in the later years of schooling, knowledge on the part of the teacher is the major consideration. May we not also affirm as a principle that all grades of teaching, no matter how great the teacher's skill, will be materially strengthened by the fullest practicable degree of mastery of one's subject and of the theory of its value and function as a factor in education?

The converse to this last principle should also be true—

¹ *Education*, vol. 29, pp. 1-6, "Distinctive Functions of University, College and Normal School in the Preparation of Teachers."

that no matter how well any one who teaches may know the subject or the materials of education, he will still be a better teacher if he has somehow acquired reasonable skill or facility in the art of teaching. The majority of our young teachers begin their work in rural or village schools where they receive very little or no assistance in the form of intelligent supervision. To these, experience may or may not bring any real skill in the art of teaching. To acquire such training they need expert guidance from some one who carefully observes their work from day to day. The case is practically the same, in varying degrees, with regard to instruction in our colleges. The lower classes of undergraduates, more in need of the skilled teacher's guidance than perhaps at any other time in their school experience, are turned over to the young, inexperienced instructors to practise on until they, too, have acquired some skill as craftsmen in their field. True economy in keeping up the supply of teachers may very consistently demand that all teachers have some training under experts who can give their time to a study of the student-teacher's work, offering specific suggestions and criticisms as they may be needed.

4. Training of Teachers in High Schools

With these principles before us we may now proceed to discuss the kinds of training which the different types of schools for the preparation of teachers may best offer and under what conditions. It is a fact readily established by statistics that a considerable proportion of our teachers of elementary schools receive in the high school all the preparation they ever get for teaching. In most cases this is training only in knowledge without even the theory of teaching included. The high school

is the home school. Many of those desiring to teach are from families in moderate circumstances if not ranking among the poorer classes. They cannot afford the cost of a year or more away from home at a normal school. If they teach, therefore, they must make use of the home school at least for their initial preparation. And usually this is the part of their preparation which determines their success or failure once for all.

As a rule, we get good teachers from among such candidates, and society cannot afford, therefore, to make teaching inaccessible to them. Furthermore, it would be impracticable, for some time to come, at least, for our normal schools and colleges to prepare enough teachers to meet the demand. It seems inevitable that the high schools should have an important place in this work. Indeed, there is ample ground for believing that one of the surest and most essential means to progress in the work of our elementary schools is to be found in the establishment of many more and better high schools free to all classes.

What, then, should be the kind of training offered by our high schools as preparation for teaching? Evidently they should prepare only for elementary work. This should include a study of the most important pedagogical principles involved in the teaching of elementary subjects and in managing a schoolroom. Some well-directed observational work should be given and, if possible, at least a few opportunities at actual teaching with or without the presence of the regular teacher.

Provision should be made by the State for aiding such high schools in a county as are strong enough to offer teachers' courses and every possible facility provided for making this training as effective as possible. Special emphasis should be placed upon the needs and condi-

tions in rural schools, since most of those going out to teach from our high schools are likely to begin their work in the country districts.

5. Normal Schools Typical Training-Schools

The typical American institution for the preparation of elementary teachers is the normal school. This is an institution to be found in nearly all our States, varying in number for each State from one to eighteen. The States making the largest provision for normal-school training are: New York, 18; Pennsylvania, 17; Wisconsin, 15; Massachusetts, 11; and Maine, 10. A total of 196 public normal schools were reported for all the States in 1910. These schools employed, in all, 3,185 teachers for normal students and 1,629 for other departments, making a total instructional force of 4,814 persons. There were enrolled in these public normal schools 79,546 students in normal departments. In all departments not including model schools there were enrolled 113,011 students. The number of normal graduates for the year was 13,725. This scarcely more than equals the annual increase¹ in the number of teachers employed, to say nothing of the very large number dropping out of the ranks each year.

The standard of work in these institutions varies widely; but the general scope of the work seems to be about the same in all. The elementary subjects are reviewed as a basis for pedagogical consideration. The academic courses of high-school grade are usually taught. More recently the manual arts and agriculture have been added. In many of the normal schools business courses are offered. Along professional lines elementary courses are given in psychology, the principles

¹ The average annual increase for the three years ending in 1909 was 10,738.

of education, history of education, school management, and methods of treatment of the different subjects to be taught.

In many cases the admission requirements permit pupils to enter directly from the completion of the eight grades of elementary school work. These may be graduated at the end of a four-year course. Others enter with from one to three years of high-school work, which is usually below standard, and may graduate in three years, or in some cases two. A regular two-year professional course is offered for graduates of four-year high schools. The United States Commissioner of Education, in his report for 1910, mentions as evidence of advancement in the normal schools the following points: (1) They require for admission the completion of a four-year high-school course or its equivalent; (2) they offer four-year degree courses which are cultural as well as professional, parallel to regular college courses; (3) they provide for specialization in manual arts, domestic economy, agriculture, and the natural sciences.

Until very recently no attention has been paid by normal schools to the peculiar needs of rural schools. Even now this is done only in a few instances. The typical courses considered are such as are usually offered in the grades of a city school, and the training-schools, which are standard features in the organization of normal schools, are also planned almost solely in the interests of the graded system of towns and cities. It seems quite evident that somewhere in the educational system special attention should be given to the training of an adequate number of teachers who could enter into the spirit of country life in such a way as to stimulate interest in and love for the rural industries and for rural home life of an improved type. Certainly it will be

readily granted that for such vision and leadership as is here demanded something more than a mere high-school training is required.

Perhaps the most notable feature about our normal schools is to be found in the atmosphere which they create for the student body, resulting usually in the inculcation of a fine professional enthusiasm. In this respect no other institution sending out teachers has yet been able to equal them. The singleness of purpose which pervades all the work, the serious outlook which a definite choice of such a calling gives, conspire to engender such a strong professional spirit.

6. Need and Propriety of Federal Aid for Normal Schools

At present these institutions are maintained chiefly at the expense of the States. The situation seems to point to the necessity as well as to the right of a liberal contribution toward their support from the Federal Government. The service of teachers trained in a given State is not to be held within the boundaries of a single commonwealth. Very quickly the laws of supply and demand operate, and the graduates of any given normal school are scattered among many States. They are drawn upon also for the island service in Porto Rico and the Philippines. Indeed, these schools are more national than State when considered in this light.

7. The City Training-School

The city training-school is a localized type of normal school which contributes almost solely to the supply of teachers for the city system of which it is a part. Generally speaking, its organization and operation are very similar to those of the State schools. In order to insure

a sufficient number of properly qualified teachers for the elementary grades, many of our larger cities are compelled to maintain either a training-school or teachers' college. To one looking at the situation as a whole it seems unfortunate that such a condition should exist. In most cases where cities train their own teachers, the vast majority of those taking the training are from the city school system, for which they are trained. This, taken in connection with local city certificating of teachers, puts a special and exclusive emphasis on whatever is local and provincial to the exclusion of those elements which should come rather freely from all sources from which teachers are supplied, in order to keep the vitality of the system at its best. It may be desirable to have in each large city a normal school for the training of those of the city who may wish to teach. But such an institution should be administered independently of the city as a State school. Its students should be drawn from all sources and its graduates encouraged to go out of the home city to teach.

8. Colleges and Universities as Training-Schools for Teachers

Later in the evolution of our educational policies there has developed a new aspect to the problem of training teachers for our schools. Before normal schools or high schools existed the colleges were sending out a considerable number of men as teachers. At first these men taught in the Latin schools and in academies; but when public high schools began to be organized, they also came into service in these schools. Among the pioneer settlements of the great West they often became the first teachers of the "rate" schools, while they and their fellow college men in other professions led in laying the

foundations for a system of free public schools. As men of learning, endowed with something of that altruistic spirit which was a dominant force in every early college, they simply took up the task of transmitting the "Promethean flame." They had not been trained in the art of teaching further than that they had caught the spirit of the teacher from close and frequent contact with those at whose feet they sat as willing and zealous disciples.

After the Civil War, high schools, normal schools, and State universities developed with about equal rapidity throughout the Central West. Traditionally, the teaching of the higher grades in high schools was passed over chiefly to the men of college training. As supervisory positions increased in number, the men trained in normal schools, because of their superior training in educational history and theory, readily won the preference of educational boards for these positions.

Meantime pressure was brought for a training that should give equal opportunity for such commanding positions to those men who still preferred to get their preparation for teaching in colleges and universities. The higher institutions of the States responded by the organization of departments for the teaching of "didactics," or educational theory and history. Departments of psychology generally evolved from this effort, with their first courses directed in the interests of those preparing to teach.

9. The University School of Education

Next came the idea of the school of education or teachers' college, always with the sole idea of giving opportunity to those who sought a college preparation for teaching, to get with this training sufficient profes-

sional knowledge to fit them for supervisory and high school positions. The chief opposition to these schools of education, strangely enough, arose from within the institutions themselves. For centuries the holder of an A.B. degree had been considered amply qualified to teach; why should he now be expected to study about teaching? Why all this talk about practice teaching and a science of education? Was the high ideal of learning to be degraded to the mere process of fitting men and women for occupations?

Slowly, very slowly, the school of education is finding its place in the work of our great State universities. As the work of organizing the principles and history of education proceeds, college men are more and more convinced of the importance of it as a field for research. Still more slowly, however, proceeds the recognition of the need of the real educational laboratory—the practice and model schools for training, observation, and experimentation. The situation is not unlike that of agriculture among farmers. For years they laughed at the idea of “book farming.” Had not men, their ancestors, succeeded for many hundreds of years in the cultivation of the soil and in the production of crops and stock? Now, at last, after a long struggle, most farmers have become convinced that there is a very important gain resulting from the application of scientific principles in agriculture. So it must be with education. Most of the public-school teachers, and especially those charged with administrative functions, are already convinced. The “doubting Thomases” are among the ranks of the professors in our liberal-arts colleges, who seem vaguely to fear some loss or change in the significance of the baccalaureate degree in arts, as though a degree is, or ever can be, a fixed and immutable measure for all the learn-

ing of all ages up to a definite stage in the process of education. Others who oppose the idea are to be found in certain normal schools or teachers' colleges. Their fear is of the loss of prestige because of something higher than they.

There are great unsolved problems in the field of education which it will take years of patient and careful investigation and experimentation to solve. It is probably true that some of this can be as well or better done by normal schools. Yet the normal schools must ever use most of their resources in preparing the vast army of teachers for our elementary schools.

The men and women who seek to prepare at a university for the work of teaching, if we are to place any stress at all on their professional training, must be able to get this in connection with the institution where they study. Besides, in order to carry forward the work of investigation, a considerable number must be especially trained for this phase of work. There are no other institutions so well qualified to give this training as are the universities.

Then, again, the broad development which our elementary and high school education is taking on renders it essential that he who trains to supervise and develop this work should, somewhere in his training, get something of that broader outlook which only a university is prepared to give. But if universities are to equal the normal schools in the inculcation, in the teachers they train, of that fine professional spirit of which mention has been made, some organic structure must be provided, perhaps more akin to Teachers College at Columbia University.

10. What Should Be the Relation of the Three Types of Training?

At the present stage in the progress of this particular phase of our educational evolution there is much uncertainty and considerable contention as to just what should be the relationship of the three types of institutions—high schools, normal schools, and universities—to this work of preparing teachers and also of each to the others in the whole field of educational endeavor. Such a state of things is not a matter to wonder at nor to cause any special concern or heat of debate. It is naturally to be expected as an episode in the growth of a great, new institution which is daily entering into the pioneer regions of human experience along educational lines.

What we need to do is to keep in view the one single aim: an efficient system of education for a great democracy which doubtless carries with its ultimate success or failure the destinies of the millions who, as posterity, shall inherit the permanent results of our acts. Such an aim should readily overshadow and outweigh any and all private or personal interests. True, it is very essential to the finding of the final truth that each one who believes he has found some portion of that truth should insistently maintain his point of view until others may also see and weigh his theory. But all this can best be done in a spirit of harmony and good-fellowship. The real dangers to be feared as causes which may retard or prevent the truth are narrow jealousy or a mean selfishness which will even resort to questionable means in order to secure their ends.

The whole scheme for the training of our teachers needs careful revision and especially unification or co-ordina-

tion in the functioning of its different parts. It has been said of the normal schools, for instance, that they are out of the general currents of educational movement and growth. If this is so the connections should be readjusted. The normal school really belongs to a part of the completed scheme for the university work of a State.

II. Methods of Co-ordinating the University and Normal School

There are two ways in general by which this co-ordinating and unifying process might be brought about and the highest end of this department of our system of public education much more readily attained. Probably the individual and ununified development of these separate factors in a common process has gone about as far as it can consistently with the welfare of society both in matters of economy and for general effectiveness. The two methods of adjustment are these: First, let the educators controlling and directing the administrative development of these three types of institutions get together in frequent and serious conference, having laid aside all minor or ulterior aims, to consider just what the larger permanent State and national welfare demands and to devise ways and means of bringing it about. Let them consider wherein they may co-operate so as to avoid waste, or conflict, or duplication. For all these mighty factors are needed, each at its best, to meet this great social demand; and they are all by nature readily adapted to being dovetailed into unison.

If for any reason these educators are not strong enough or clear enough of vision to do this—if, in other words, there exists a condition demanding arbitration—then each State for itself should establish a commission, some-

thing like that which has been provided in Scotland,¹ whose function it should be to bring about the adjustments necessary for complete co-operation in accomplishing this great service, second to none, of providing adequately trained teachers for all grades of our schools and for their supervision.

Not only is such an adjustment needed in individual States but also for the nation as a whole. There are matters of vital importance to the economy and efficiency of the administration of education which wait upon some such adjustments among the States. Such a case would be the standardizing of requirements for graduation from professional courses in normal schools and universities, so as to make it possible to have nationwide recognition of certain diplomas from these institutions as a basis for certification. As in the case of the States, so in this larger sense either of the two methods mentioned above might be used. But whether in the case of State or nation, the plan of mutual agreement through conference, if only those most concerned can come together in peace, will always be found most effective and satisfactory. Under the plan of State control through one board, as suggested in chap. VII, such a plan of conference and agreement would send up to the board a unanimous recommendation, the approval of which would be a foregone conclusion.

12. Training of Teachers in Service

There is another phase of the training of teachers, but one not distinctly a feature of the work of society in establishing the schools. This is the training in service which teachers get, partly through voluntary associa-

¹ See Snedden, David, "A New Scheme for the Training of Teachers in Scotland," *Educational Review*, 39 : 433-54.

tions, partly through work organized and directed by the superintendents of schools—State, county, and city—and partly through organized effort on the part of the State through legislative provisions. The latter is the one to be discussed briefly here. The first and second really belong to the discussion of the administration of instruction, which is still to follow.

This organized phase of the work comes chiefly under the head of teachers' institutes. Forty-three of the States make some legal provision for institutes, and in the five remaining States, Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Tennessee, institutes are held voluntarily. These gatherings may be yearly or oftener. They mostly continue for one week, although in a number of instances they are in session two and sometimes even four weeks in succession. In most States teachers who attend an institute during the term of their regular employment are allowed to do so on pay the same as for teaching. Minnesota seems to be the only exception to this practice. In some States, as Indiana and Ohio, teachers receive regular pay for attendance even when the institute is held in vacation. In twelve States institutes are supported wholly by State appropriations; in seven others wholly by county appropriations. In nine States fees are the sole means of support, while in the other twenty States there are various combinations of either two or all of these three methods.

The management of institutes, especially those legally established, is either by the State directly or by counties, or by co-operation of the two. In the earlier days of institutes they were conducted more generally for regular academic and professional instruction. As high schools and normal schools have multiplied, such instruc-

tion has become less needed, and as a result the term has shortened and the general plan of the institute has changed. Now it may be said that the chief aim everywhere is stimulation and inspiration of teachers to higher ideals of teaching and to a finer appreciation of the dignity and importance of the teacher's work.

The usual method is to employ one or more special lecturers of marked ability in expounding educational ideals and principles. Until recently the general practice has been to have all grades and classes of teachers meet in one group for the lectures. More recently, however, is seen a marked tendency to differentiate the work, as in the case of New York, where there are rural, graded, and high-school sections. Some such plan of organization, at least for part of the work of each day, has a strong tendency to increase the interest and effectiveness of the work.

Somewhat differentiated from the county or district institute is the summer normal school provided for in some States, as in Louisiana, Minnesota, South Dakota, and Texas. These are for a longer period and are provided especially to enable teachers to meet specific requirements in the way of professional training. In some instances institute work has degenerated into a kind of cheap entertainment type. But in the main these educational gatherings have played and still are playing an important part in the general educational uplift. There is need, however, of some more definite standards for measuring their achievement, for determining relative values in the different methods of handling them as an educational means.

In only a few of the States as yet is any effective provision made for the licensing of those who are to be permitted to lecture or instruct in institutes. Extreme care

in this, as in the selection of teachers always, is the essential thing. The best method for such licensing thus far in use seems to be by a non-political State board, which should be not a board of laymen but of experts. Too much money and energy are involved in this great educational mechanism to permit for a single session any wasteful or ineffective use of the time and means devoted to its purposes.

CHAPTER X

THE SELECTION OF TEACHERS

There are two ways by which the members of society secure service from their fellows: one is to purchase it directly, as a transaction between individuals or between the individual and an organized group of individuals; in the other case the social group as a whole calls certain of its members to perform special services to the community, the State, or the nation. This call may come by the direct franchise of the people or through an intermediary body of men selected to look after some special department of the interests common to the social group.

1. Method of Selection of Teachers

Generally speaking, where the selection of the service is somewhat involved or where the service to be rendered is of such a character as to require special care in the selection of those who are to serve the second form of call by the social group is employed. This is true, in the main, in the selection of those who deal directly with the educational problems of society. The chief exceptions are to be found in the selection of those called to have the oversight of the larger educational units, as State and county superintendents. As has been intimated in a previous chapter, it is believed that better results might be had if these officials were also chosen by the intermediary process. Indeed, the experience of

States where such a plan has been tried seems to support strongly such belief.

2. State-wide System of Selection Needed

The provision by society for the special training of teachers for their work in itself implies a selection and setting aside for this peculiar and vitally important service. We have seen that in the development of the school it was first local in character, and the selection of teachers was therefore entirely local and altogether by laymen rather than upon expert recommendation of any sort. Even in the licensing of persons as teachers the layman had the initiative. Later, as our educational system has developed, the tendency has been to cling to the old traditional custom of local selection. Only by slow degrees of advancement have the people come to understand that the service of the teacher is general rather than local and that, consequently, the mechanism for selecting teachers should be at least State-wide in its character and scope, and that the selection should be based as far as possible on expert judgment.

In the choosing and setting aside of individuals for other departments of public service the movement toward central control has usually been much more rapid. In military and naval affairs, for instance, the world-wide practice of State and national selective agencies has been recognized practically from the beginning. In civil affairs we have general State and national civil service with licensing based on examinations by experts. As examples we may note the various lines of expert service required by the State and national governments, admission of lawyers to the practice of their profession; likewise licensing for the practice of medicine, pharmacy, nursing, architecture, etc.

If any advantage whatever could come from a more general and expert control in selecting and certificating teachers, surely this branch of service should demand that immediate adjustments be made in that direction. Next to national existence itself is the importance of our general educational system in its relation to national well-being. The peculiarly intimate relationship of the teacher's work to the physical, mental, and moral health of society is well known to all. Important as are our military safeguards, our expert civil service, and the other lines of professional service mentioned above, not any or all of them can be said to be so far-reaching, so intimately essential to the very fountains of our national strength and prosperity, as are the means of insuring that general intelligence and morality for which, largely, the teachers of our schools must stand.

3. Magnitude of the Teaching Service

This is but repeating in another form the trite notion of the very great importance, both State and national, of the service rendered by our teachers. The magnitude of this service may be put also in an economic way, although the figures representing this value can scarcely be said to bear a just ratio to the importance of the service rendered when compared with the economic expression of other branches of social service.

The cost of our military and naval defences in times of peace, when compared with our school statistics, will serve to illustrate the statement made in the last paragraph. The cost of maintaining our army and navy for the year 1908-9 was approximately \$207,000,000. The personnel of these two forces numbered 138,276 for the year 1910. Put on a per-capita basis this would mean about \$1,500 per person.

The total amount paid public-school teachers and superintendents for the year 1908-9 was \$237,013,243. The number of teachers employed in the public schools for the same year was 506,453. This put upon a per-capita basis gives us only \$468 per person, or less than one-third the cost per person of our general defensive and police service in times of peace.

Even with this comparatively low per-capita cost, however, we must not forget that the expenditure is vast; and that, taken with the tremendous social values at stake, the situation calls for the most careful selection of those who are to teach. There is involved in the problem not only the economic significance which the above figures indicate but also the question of the relative conservation or waste of the growing time of childhood and youth.

4. Urgent Need of Better Methods of Selection

The work of teaching, with social efficiency as the aim of education, calls for the highest possible adaptation to the special work to be accomplished as well as the highest degree of skill in its performance. Upon the success or failure of the work of our teachers are to depend largely the habits, knowledge, and ideals with which our young men and women are to take their places in the social ranks. In short, we may say that, ultimately, upon the degree of efficiency of our methods of selecting the teachers of our children depends the upbuilding or undoing of the nation—nothing less.

In the face of such conditions we are no longer left in doubt as to the need of great care in the selection of those who are to teach and to supervise our schools. The wonder is that we have hesitated so long and still hesitate, some of us, to do the obviously necessary thing

—to see to the establishing of a mechanism whereby we may have the greatest possible security in regard to the capability of our teachers of children and youth. The trouble is that there is a considerable number of good people who are afraid that by setting up certain recognized standards as to the qualifications of teachers we may thereby leave out some very desirable individuals who have a strong native ability to teach but are not able in the ordinary way to meet the scholarship and professional standards usually set up. These people seem to believe in making rules out of exceptions rather than providing for the exceptional cases under the rules. They forget, perhaps, that standards wisely enforced for a generation will practically eliminate any such exceptional class because those who come after will take heed and prepare to meet the requirements.

5. Present Practice too Cumbersome

As a result of present practice we have a very cumbersome and complex arrangement for the licensing of those who are to teach. In portions of New England, particularly in Massachusetts and Connecticut, the old local or town system of certificating is still in use. Under this plan the certificates are usually issued by laymen on an examination which is mostly oral and altogether perfunctory and inadequate as a means of testing the competency of those to be considered eligible to teach.

6. City Certification—Its Weakness

In most of the States some of the cities, acting under special charter, are permitted to determine the certification of those who are to teach in the city system of schools. Generally this privilege is confined to the great cities. In some States, however, this plan applies to

cities and towns quite generally, as in the State of Kansas. In these cases the examinations are usually conducted by experts, although under some State systems the examining boards are composed partly of laymen. Usually the standards of scholarship and professional training maintained by the larger cities are higher than those represented by either county or State certification. In some instances, however, where the State requirements are brought to a high level of efficiency the cities voluntarily relinquish the practice and accept the certification by State authority.

The chief weakness of the city system is the building up of a local or provincial school of educational theory and practice through the somewhat exclusive methods used in filling the teaching ranks. This is emphasized by the presence, in most of the cities concerned, of a local city training-school. Those cities which are able to make use of a State system are largely freed from this tendency, since they may draw their supply of teachers freely from the State at large.

7. County Certification

Next to the town or city system comes county certification. Of this there are two general types: the strict county system, which leaves the whole matter of examining and certifying teachers in the hands of the county commissioner or superintendent. This plan, because it includes the larger unit, and because the examinations are, in a measure, by experts, is a great improvement over the town system. But it still falls short of highest efficiency in several particulars. It still makes uniformity for a State impossible. Teachers are hampered unnecessarily in transferring from one part of the State to another. It is wasteful of community resources and of the

TABLE I. LOCAL CERTIFICATES, VALID ONLY IN TERRITORY INDICATED

Name of State	Territory Included	Authority Issuing	Kinds
Alabama.	District of 2,000 or more population.	No provision.	No provision.
California.	City.	Board of examiners.	Grammar or primary special.
Colorado.	Districts of first class.	District boards.	District certificates.
Connecticut.	Districts.	High-school committee—public-school committee or board of education.	High-school certificates. Public-school certificates.
Kansas.	First and second class cities, common-school districts having over ten teachers. County high school.	Examining committee.	Local city, common-school, and county high-school certificates.
Maine.	Town.	Town superintendent.	Town certificate.
Massachusetts.	Town.	School committee.	Town certificate.
Michigan.	Certain incorporated cities. ¹	Superintendent and board or a committee of board.	Local city certificate.

New Hampshire.	District.	School board.	District certificate.
New Mexico.	City.	City boards.	Not stated.
New York.	City.	Special acts of regents.	City certificates.
Oregon.	District.	District board of examiners.	Special district certificates.
South Dakota.	Cities of first class.	Examining committee, superintendent and two others.	Local and special subjects.
Texas.	City.	Board of examiners.	<i>Permanent:</i> High school, first grade, primary. <i>Temporary:</i> High school, first grade, second grade.
Utah.	City.	Board of education.	High school, grammar, primary.
Washington.	City.	Board of directors.	High school, grammar, primary.
Wisconsin.	City.	City superintendent.	First, second, and third grades, special third grade, kindergarten, first and second grades.

¹ Cities employing a high-school principal and also a superintendent who gives not less than one-third of his time to supervision.
 NOTE.—The city of Chicago in Illinois has authority, by special charter provision, to license all teachers employed.

TABLE II.—SHOWING COUNTY CERTIFICATION, VALID ONLY IN COUNTY WHERE ISSUED

Name of State	Issued by	Examined by	Schools in Which Valid	Kinds or Grades
Arkansas. California.	Co. supt. Co. board of education. (Temporary by supt.)	Co. supt.	Any. As name indicates. (Temporary same.)	First, second, third. Secondary, ¹ grammar, or elementary, kindergarten, primary, special.
Colorado. ² Delaware. ³	Co. supt. Co. supt.	Co. supt. Co. supt.	Any. Any.	First, second, third. Professional first, second, temporary.
Florida.	Co. supt.	Co. supt.	Any. (Temporary only in elementary.)	First grade life; first, second, third, temporary.
Georgia.	Co. board of education.	Co. school commissioner.	Any elementary.	First, second, third, temporary.
Idaho.	Co. supt.	State board examiners.	Any.	Third, ⁴ special; third, permit.
Illinois. Indiana.	Co. supt. Co. supt.	Co. supt. Co. supt.	Any (except special). High schools, common branches, first four grades, respectively, special subjects.	First, second, special. County high school, county common school, county primary school, three grades each. Special.
Kansas.	County board of examiners.	County board of examiners. ⁵	Any.	First, second, third temporary. ⁶

Kentucky.	County board of examiners.	County board of examiners. ⁷	Any.	First, second, third.
Louisiana.	Parish ⁸ board of examiners.	State board of examiners.	Any.	First, second, third, special. ⁹
Maryland.	Co. supt.	Co. supt.	Any.	First and second grade, each first and second class.
Michigan.	County board of examiners.	County board of examiners. ¹⁰	First and second grade; any third grade; Class A, primary dept.; Class B, any.	First, second, third. Latter classes A and B.
Minnesota.	State and county superintendent.	State superintendent.	Elementary grades.	Second grade, limited second, third grade. ¹¹
Mississippi.	County board of examiners.	County board of examiners. ¹²	Any.	First, second, third.
Missouri.	Co. supt.	State supt. (Co. supt. in some cases).	All public schools (by endorsement in other counties).	Second, third, special.
Montana.	County board of examiners.	County board of examiners. ¹²	Any except high schools and principalships. ¹³	Professional, first, second, third, temporary.

⁷ Valid in any school.⁸ Questions issued from State superintendent's office.⁹ Questions issued by State board of education.¹⁰ First and second grades, valid in State if filed in county.¹¹ Questions by State board of education.¹² Issued by county superintendent.¹³ Questions by State board of examiners.¹ Corresponds to county. Papers may be transferred.² Issued by examination committee, valid in parish for special academic department named.¹⁰ Questions by State superintendent.¹¹ Issued by county superintendent.¹² Questions by State superintendent.¹³ Professional, valid in any.

TABLE II.—SHOWING COUNTY CERTIFICATION, VALID ONLY IN COUNTY WHERE ISSUED—CONTINUED

Name of State	Issued by	Examined by	Schools in Which Valid	Kinds or Grades
Nebraska.	Co. supt.	State supt. ¹	Any except city districts.	First, second, third, emergency.
New Jersey.	State board of examiners. ²	No examination—recommend. of co. supt.	According to grade.	Provisional State permit.
New Mexico.	Co. supt.	No examination.	Any.	Temporary permit.
New York. ³	School commissioner.	State commissioner of education.	Subjects named.	Special with or without exam., training class, rural school, academic, elementary.
N. Carolina.	Co. supt.	Co. supt.	Any elementary school.	First, second, third. Permit.
N. Dakota.	Co. supt.	No examination. ⁴	Option of co. supt.	
Ohio.	County board of school examiners.	County board of examiners. ⁵	High schools, elementary schools, respectively.	Provisional, professional elementary, special, temporary.
Oklahoma.	County board of examiners.	County board of examiners. ⁶	Any.	Second, third (temporary by co. supt.).
Pennsylvania.	Co. or district supt.	Co. or district supt.	Branches named.	Professional, provisional.
S. Carolina.	County board of education.	County board of education. ⁶	Any.	First, second, third, and with no examination. ⁷

S. Dakota.	State superintendent. ⁸	State superintendent.	Elementary grades and kindergarten.	Second, third, primary, temporary.
Tennessee.	Co. supt.	Co. supt.	Secondary, any primary, only elementary.	Secondary and primary, each with or without examination, three grades in all.
Texas.	County board of examiners.	County board of examiners. ⁹	Grades below high school.	Second grade.
Washington.	Co. supt.	Co. supt.	Special subjects.	Special.
W. Virginia.	State superintendent.	No examination.	According to grade.	Emergency. ¹⁰
Wisconsin.	Co. supt.	Co. supt.	Elementary schools and kindergartens.	First, second, third, special third; first, second, third, kindergarten.
Wyoming.	Co. supt.	No examination.	Any.	Permit.

⁸ Questions by State superintendent.⁹ County permit by county superintendent.¹⁰ District instead of county commissioners.¹¹ Satisfactory evidence of qualifications required.¹² State commissioner prepares questions.¹ Questions by State board of education.² Record of preparation accepted.³ County superintendent may issue temporary.⁴ Questions from State department.⁵ Valid only in county designated.

time and money of teachers. It keeps the standards of preparation too low. Only one State, Delaware, now adheres to the strict county plan.

Then there is the modified county plan by which the State has more or less to do with the certification in counties.

In the States making use of this modified county plan the nature of the modification varies.¹ It may be by transfer of papers from one county to another; by sending out to counties uniform questions from the State department; by general interchange of county certificates, either voluntarily or by legal compulsion; by the forwarding of papers to the State superintendent for validation or indorsement by him. All of these modifications are efforts to eliminate the grosser evils of the local system.

The following States in the above table provide, with or without restrictions, for transfer or indorsement of certificates in other counties: California, Colorado, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Illinois, Kansas, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee.

8. State Certification

State plans of certification vary from the State's participation in the modified county plans mentioned above to absolute State administration. There are fifteen States which may be said to come under the latter class. Most of the States, to be exact, twenty-eight, where the county plan prevails also issue from the State department or through a State board certificates of a higher

¹ Cubberley, E. P., Fifth Year Book, Nat. Society for Study of Education, part II, pp. 19-22.

grade valid throughout the State, and usually for longer periods than those issued in counties. The final goal to this system is the life certificate. The advantages of State control in the issuing of licenses to teach are: (1) general uniformity of requirements as to standards of scholarship and professional training; (2) the wider range of validity secured; (3) the extension of the term of validity, thus reducing the number of examinations.

9. Lack of Conformity to Any System among States

Even State systems as now organized have their weak points. There are no common standards among the several States. The conditions of granting are comparatively lax in some States, thus making the practice of interchange between States a matter of careful investigation and discrimination. As our teachers move about freely from State to State, this again is a drawback. It is gratifying to note that this situation is receiving attention at the hands of the National Education Association and also by the U. S. Commissioner of Education. It is to be hoped that on the essential points grounds of agreement among the States may be found, so that certificates may be readily transferable from one State to another, if, indeed, they are not validated by a central board, thus making them good anywhere in the United States.

The large number and variety of State certificates issued makes it difficult to express these in ordinary tabular form. For this reason we give the following partially tabulated description:

1. Whole number of different kinds, 399.
2. Number of States issuing some form of life certificate, 39.

3. Number of States issuing certificates of limited duration but subject to renewal, 33. Number renewing only on re-examination, 4. One State extends for attendance at some school.
4. There are 3 States in which the limited-term certificates are non-renewable and 10 in which the lower-grade certificates are not renewable. In 14 States provision is made for extending the higher grades into life certificates. Usually permits and temporary certificates are non-renewable.
5. The usual forms of certificates are life: first, second, and third grades; professional, supervisory, high-school, elementary, special, kindergarten. Fourteen States issue some form of professional certificate, 9 a supervisor's certificate, 14 issue high-school certificates, 14 kindergarten certificates, and 13 make all State certificates (except certain special certificates) good for teaching in any public school.
6. The basis on which these certificates are issued also varies greatly. Life certificates are issued on examination, or on college or normal-school diploma, or a combination of examination and diploma. Twenty-nine out of the 39 issue wholly or in part on examination, and 27 recognize, in some way, college or normal-school certificates. Some experience, varying from fifteen months to ten years, is required in nearly all cases, the average being between four and five years.

Limited-term certificates are usually based on examinations. In some instances diplomas are accepted. The examinations usually cover the

subjects taught in high school, or certain groups of them, together with some test along professional lines. These examinations are conducted by the State superintendent, the State board of education, or a State board of examiners.

When we consider the present chaotic condition such a consummation as suggested above seems like a far call, an ideal too high for attainment. Yet when once the clinging to the traditional practice of local control in certification is relinquished the greatest obstacle will be removed. It rests largely with those engaged in educational work to determine standards as to training, probably the most fundamental thing of all; duration and extent of the validity of certificates; the relative importance of training and examinations as a basis for granting certificates. Then, if by some power of persuasion the fee system can be abolished, each State making provision for all the expense connected with the issuing of teachers' licenses, we shall have attained practically the fundamental conditions upon which to base a free interchange, among the States, of all certificates of teachers and supervisors of our schools.

10. Recognition of Institutional Training as a Basis for Certification

One of the most vital questions still remaining unsettled with reference to the certification of teachers is that of the recognition to be given to the diplomas of various institutions as evidence of adequate preparation for teaching, both as to scholarship and professionally. It would seem to need no argument to demonstrate the propriety of the recognition, by any State, of the preparation of teachers in institutions or departments of in-

stitutions maintained by the State for that purpose. As E. P. Cubberley puts it: "There is no valid excuse for compelling a graduate of a State normal school to pass a county examination before she can teach."¹ Yet it is still true that in a number of the States teachers first entering upon the work, even though normal-school graduates, must pass the county examination in order to get a certificate of inferior grade and for short duration, while in others the holder of such a diploma may at once receive a life certificate to teach anywhere in the State.

It is likewise true that, in several States, college and university graduates must pass county examinations to teach or supervise until they have the experience demanded for State certification. In some cases these examinations bear little or no relationship to the actual teaching work which the candidates are to do. It is, to say the least, an anomaly thus to permit the repudiation of the work of institutions established and maintained by the State solely, or in part at least, for the proper preparation of teachers. This condition of things illustrates, in a very striking way, the undue value which has been placed upon the examination as a test for fitness to teach.

On the other hand, the granting of a life certificate without future condition other than the power of revocation usually vested in the superintendent or board which issues it is, perhaps, as bad an extreme in the opposite direction. The safeguarding of our schools would seem to be more nearly attained if renewals, based on clear evidence of professional advancement and growth satisfactory both in kind and degree, were required once in five or ten years.

¹ In Fifth Year Book, Nat. Society for the Study of Education, part II, p. 76.

11. Summary of Conditions Needed for Efficiency

To summarize, we need to secure about the following conditions in order to insure reasonable efficiency in that general scheme of selecting teachers which we call licensing or certification:

1. Proper standards of scholarship and professional training as evidenced (*a*) by the preparation of candidates and (*b*) by examinations conducted by experts and uniform throughout a given State.
2. Greater uniformity both as to the grades and kinds of certificates, including age limit, time, and extent of validity.
3. The assumption by the State of all cost involved in certification.
4. The greatest possible freedom of interchange of certificates among States.

12. Specific Selection by Boards and Supervisors

The function of selecting teachers, however, does not cease with their proper certification. By such a setting apart of those found to be fitted, in a few of the more general qualifications, for the work of teaching, society essays to protect boards of education against a large number of incompetent individuals who would otherwise seek employment in the schools. There still remains the selecting of teachers for particular schools and for specific lines of work therein. First of all, there are to be chosen the supervisors of the work. These are of two classes—general and special. The general superintendents may be for the State, the county, the township, or district. In the former two cases it is still customary, in a majority of States, to choose by popular election, these offices

usually ranking as of minor significance in the general political scheme of the State or county, and the selections depending upon the hazards of the usual machinery of partisan politics. We have already suggested the desirability of an intermediary board with appointive power.¹ While the members of such boards must usually be laymen rather than experts, yet they are apt to be more carefully selected with reference to their fitness for the duties they are to perform and they may be entirely non-partisan in character.

In the case of the town or district superintendent the choice is almost universally vested in a board nearly always non-partisan in make-up although generally also composed of laymen.

Special supervisors are chosen in a similar manner, except that usually nominations are made by the general superintendent acting in the capacity of educational expert for the board. Such supervisors are those of kindergartens, primary grades, music, drawing, physical culture or play, manual training, domestic science, and arts. Special supervisors are sometimes employed under the State department of supervision, and very generally in cities. With the adoption of county units of control for rural education they would be employed also by county boards. Another type of supervising agency is seen in the ward principal of a city system. His appointment is usually upon the recommendation of the superintendent.

13. Importance of This Function of Boards of Education

By far the most important function of educational boards, either rural or urban, is the selection and appointment of teachers for the various teaching positions

¹ Chap. VII.

under their administration. It requires a careful discriminating in order to secure for each place to be filled the most desirable teacher available. To base the choice on certification alone will not do. This sort of selection only expresses preference on the side of general qualifications. When it comes to the particular school and the particular form of teaching required, other grounds for judging, such as the special subjects in which the teacher is prepared, her personal qualifications, etc., come under consideration. These are matters which cannot always be clearly determined by an examination nor by personal interviews. Expert judgment by those who have seen the teacher at work either in a training-school or as a regular teacher, if given fully and clearly, is the very best basis upon which to determine a candidate's fitness for a given place.

Of course, this takes for granted that ordinary standards of scholarship and professional knowledge have been taken care of. This much certification ought to accomplish. The problem is serious enough for boards and superintendents without having to question these two fundamental points. No city, for instance, should find it necessary to duplicate the machinery for examining and certificating teachers. The State should take care of this, leaving the city free to select teachers at large rather than to be compelled to become provincial and resort to the inbreeding process of the city training-school.

14. Expert Observation of Work as a Basis for Selection

The most effective way of determining a teacher's fitness for a place is by expert observation of her work either in a regular school situation or in a well-conducted

training-school. The next best basis for judging a teacher is through the confidential statements of experts who have, in some capacity, supervised or inspected her work. The least desirable, and one rapidly becoming obsolete, is on the basis of general testimonial letters which, to be comprehended, must often be read "between lines," and which are often outlawed by reason of their original dates. For the high school the appointment committees of colleges and universities are coming to be looked upon as most dependable and helpful. A well-organized, conscientious teachers' agency is also capable of rendering valuable service both to would-be employers and those seeking employment.

The selection of teachers for rural and village schools is almost entirely by laymen. Often it occurs that little or no attention is paid to a person's real qualifications as teacher. Frequently it happens that a pretty-faced girl or a stalwart and physically masterful youth will win an appointment with scarcely any further consideration. In some instances this situation is improving, however. It is a good indication of progress when the superintendent or commissioner of a county is called upon to advise with boards of directors or trustees in the selection of teachers, or when such an official will go out of his way to suggest a suitable candidate or put the appointing authorities on guard against a possible mistake in choosing.

In the towns and smaller cities the local superintendent is now often called in to advise with the board in filling vacancies in the teaching corps. This is as it should be. The man who is to be held responsible for the successful operation of the entire system should certainly be entitled to some voice in the selection of those who are to work with him. It is true that greater re-

sponsibility on his part is thus assumed; but the chief reason for the higher salary paid him is his ability and obligation to render just such expert service.

15. Methods and Difficulties of Large Cities

In the larger systems of our great cities the business of nominating and appointing teachers is a much more complicated affair. In either case the constant struggle must be against the appointment through "pull" or political influence of those having little or no other claim on which to base their appointment. The frequent resort which is had to such means in some of our great centres exercises a baneful influence upon many of our young men and young women who are just entering upon the work of teaching. They get the notion, somehow, that the matter of "influence" is the all-important thing in securing an appointment. The result is almost inevitably a lower standard of professional aims and ideals on their part, a condition which usually marks the "beginning of the end" of their teaching careers. Fortunate indeed is it for the cause of education that most of our teachers are willing to base their claims for appointment solely upon professional training and ability.

A little correspondence with fifty of our larger cities has revealed some very interesting facts as to the basis upon which teachers are chosen for specific assignment to places in the schools. Thirty-eight out of the fifty have been heard from. Of these thirty-eight cities twenty-eight certificate their teachers, although not all do so exclusively. Twenty-three have city training-schools or teachers' colleges. Four of the cities train both high-school and elementary teachers. The training of kindergarten teachers is also provided for in most of the twenty-three cities which have public kindergartens.

Three other cities not counted in the twenty-three have normal or training classes. Four cities, Los Angeles, Oakland, Spokane, and Nashville, neither certificate nor train their own teachers. In New York, Virginia, and California State certification is quite generally accepted by the cities. In Philadelphia the training-school was recently abolished after an existence of twenty-two years.

By far the most important information received has to do with the methods of appointment in use, with especial reference to the basis for selecting teachers for particular positions. It is certainly true that the problem here confronted by education boards may be greatly simplified by a proper guarding of the two functions suggested in the facts just given. But there still remain difficulties to be gotten over. The tabular presentation given on pp. 205-207 will give a pretty good idea of the methods in use in our large cities in the selecting and appointment of teachers as this function concerns the actual work to be done.

16. Examples of Methods Used by Cities

In order to present more concretely the method of procedure in appointing teachers the plans followed by a few of the larger cities are given here more in detail. Following is that for Denver:

The teachers are elected by the board of education, but first must be present at the examination conducted by the superintendent of city schools. The scholarship examination embraces orthography, reading, arithmetic, English grammar and composition, geography, American history, elementary sciences, theory and practice of teaching, English literature, elements of vocal music, and elementary drawing. All candidates who are graduates of the Colorado Normal School, the University of Colorado, or other educational institutions of equal rank and

City	Certificates Teachers	City Training-School		Basis for Selection and Appointment of Teachers
		For Elementary Teachers Only	For Both High and Elementary	
Atlanta	Scholarship, personality, etc.
Baltimore	..	X	..	On competitive examinations for elementary grades. These are in "training and knowledge" and "aptness to teach." The latter is determined by actual teaching as substitutes.
Birmingham } Ala. }	..	X	{	Eligible list based on formal applications, with private correspondence.
Boston	X	X	..	According to normal grades.
Cambridge	..	X	..	Elementary by record in training-school. High school on experience from other schools.
Chicago	X	X	..	Elementary by graduation from training-school or State normal schools. High schools on examination. Eligible lists are made from these sources. Principals select from these lists in regular order and nominate. Superintendent recommends and board approves.
Cincinnati	X	..	X	Elementary on basis of two years of normal training beyond high-school graduation with record for practice teaching. High-school or college graduation with professional training and two years' experience in public-school teaching.
Denver	X	High school: degree from standard college—selected by high-school board of examiners. Elementary on examination by superintendent.
Detroit	From eligible list made up of graduates of city or State normal schools, those holding State life certificates, or on examination.

CITY	Certificates Teachers	City Training-School		Basis for Selection and Appointment of Teachers
		For Elementary Teachers Only	For Both High and Elementary	
Fall River	..	X	..	In order of graduation and on ability shown in substitute work.
Grand Rapids	X	On recommendation of superintendent.
Indianapolis	X	X	..	Merit only.
Jersey City	X	X	..	In order of ranking on eligible lists.
Kansas City	X	Examinations, recommendations, and such information as can be gathered.
Los Angeles	Merit based on competitive examinations. Personal, political, or social influence forbidden.
Louisville	X	X	..	On ranking for normal-school graduates. On successful experience in supplying departmental schools. Also college graduates after probation of two or three months.
Lowell	X	In order of graduation from training-school.
Memphis	X	Examination grade, experience, and training.
Milwaukee	X	Select from eligibles one best fitted for position.
Minneapolis	X	Reliable reports on preparation of teacher.
Nashville	Elected from eligible list—assigned by instruction committee and superintendent.
Newark	X	X	..	According to rating on graduation from city normal school.
New Haven	X	From State normal graduates or by recommendation of superintendent.
New Orleans	X	X	..	Grade made on final examination.
New York	X	X	..	Eligible lists prepared by board of examiners—according to ranking. For high schools separate eligible lists by subjects. Principals select according to subject.

CITY	Certificates Teachers	City Training-School		Basis for Selection and Appointment of Teachers
		For Elementary Teachers Only	For Both High and Elementary	
Oakland	On merit determined by references.
Omaha	X	X	..	Discretion of superintendent.
Paterson	X	X	..	Elementary by rank of graduation from city training-schools, high school on competitive examination.
Philadelphia	X	X	..	In order of standing on eligible lists.
Providence	X	..	X	Upon record made in training for one year.
Richmond	..	X	..	Superintendent recommends, committee nominates.
Rochester	X	X	..	Superintendent nominates principals from first ten names certified by board of examiners. Superintendent and principals constitute board for nominating teachers.
San Francisco	X	After probationary term of two years, on recommendation of superintendent.
Saint Louis	..	X	..	Grade teachers from graduates of teachers' college, by rank and order of graduation. High school and special by specific information concerning applicants.
Seattle	X	On merit.
Spokane	Select the best obtainable for money from any source.
Syracuse	..	X	..	In order of standing on merit lists.
Washington	X	X	..	In order of ranking on eligible lists.
Worcester	X	First on examination. Those examined must be graduates of a four-year high school and of a normal school with a three years' course. Examination marks are averaged with those of experience. Names are put on the waiting list in order of marks from this averaging.

character are required to take only the examination in English grammar and composition.

The scholarship examination is impersonal. Candidates who have reached a satisfactory rank in the scholarship test will appear before the board of education and be asked for testimonials, account of experience and references. They will be given rank in accordance with the judgment of the board of education, the scholarship examination obtained being an equal factor in the computation.

Teachers who have taught in these schools and who have absented themselves from the work for one year or more will be obliged to re-enter the examination in order to obtain a legal certificate.

Scholarship alone will not produce a certificate. The record of the candidate, with her accredited experience in public-school work, the scholarship standing as rated at the examination, and the personal appearance are the chief elements considered.

A physician's certificate of good health is required of candidates before engagement.

From the list of those who hold certificates vacancies are filled, the selection being made in the order of the standing at examination, thus making the trial somewhat competitive in character.

Teachers are not confirmed in their appointment before the close of the twelfth week of service. When the appointment is confirmed the engagement is likely to be permanent, subject to the rules and regulations of the board.

The plan followed by the Oakland, Cal., board is also interesting:

1. It is hereby made the duty of the city superintendent of schools to seek out and request teachers of exceptional ability to make applications for positions in the Oakland school department.

2. All candidates for positions in the Oakland school department must submit with their application blank a certificate signed by the director of health of the school department, or some other person authorized by him, showing that the holder is sound in health and physically able to do effective teaching.

CHAPTER XI

PHYSICAL EQUIPMENT OF SCHOOLS

1. Magnitude of the Problem

Not least among the problems of boards of education in preparing for the active work of the school is that of a suitable physical equipment. The total valuation of school property for all State systems in 1909-10 was \$1,100,007,512. This makes a considerable investment, even when scattered over so large an area, in property to be cared for and kept in condition by the various boards. Under the above heading are to be included grounds, buildings, furnishings and apparatus, play and athletic fields, fields for experimentation in agriculture.

In older communities existing types of buildings and grounds add materially to the obstacles in the way of educational progress. Just as in building railroads the strap iron has given place to the heavy steel rail, and sharp grades and long circuits have been eliminated by heavy fills and cuts and tunnelling, so the old type of school building, with its cramped ground space and its still more cramped rooms and corridors, has had to yield to more extensive grounds and to buildings constructed on much more generous lines. All of these advances involve large increase in cost. We must pay the price of progress in all these fields of human achievement or else remain at a standstill.

Could society but foresee the direction of movement and consequent needs that would result from the evolution through which we are passing in all these new fields of action, much of what now seems waste and loss might possibly be avoided. Yet where is the economist who will venture to assert that the seeming waste and loss are real? Just how long must the physical plant of any public utility continue in use in order to balance the cost of labor involved in its construction? The ideas it embodies, together with those which experience has added, are indestructible. The laborer is still ready to serve in order to live. The raw material, or that which may be substituted for the original, is nature's gift to man. If only there are enough to labor, and if men are honest, the rest will adjust itself without a ripple in the great, swift currents of trade and industry.

We lack most of all vision in directing these great constructive movements. Too often we look behind us to see what has been and forget to look before us to consider, in the light of the past and of present trend, what is to be. It is thus in this matter of equipping our schools. We need to build for the future rather than the present; for what should be rather than for what is or has been.

2. General Conditions to Be Cared for

Again we must deal with types. But, first of all, there are some very important general matters, applicable alike to all types, that should be disposed of. The site selected should, as far as possible, harmonize with the purposes of the school plant. It should be sanitary, free from noise or disturbing influences, reasonably easy of access to all, when all things are considered, and certainly large enough to provide room for the complete

organization of all that should be undertaken by the school, including all out-of-door exercises.

Buildings should be constructed on plans determined primarily by what things a particular school aims to do. Due regard should be had in their construction for the safety and comfort of pupils and teachers. They should be so constructed as to provide a sufficiency of light, fresh air, and warmth during the cold weather if in a climate given to extremes of temperature. The furnishings and equipment of buildings should likewise accord with their purposes, and should be adapted to convenience, facility, and good sanitation in all exercises of the school.

Before proceeding to carry out any very extensive building projects a school board should make a careful survey of the educational situation and should adopt such a building policy as is most likely to be in line with the trend of educational progress. Otherwise new and expensive structures may be out of date and poorly adapted to the school work long before their reasonable term of usefulness has expired. As an illustration, if a school system in a city is beginning to consider the adoption of what is known as the six-four-four plan the board should take into account the advisability of erecting different types of buildings for the six elementary grades, the four intermediate¹ grades, and the four high-school and junior college grades respectively.

Such a plan has been worked out in a very complete way by the city of Los Angeles, Cal., under the leadership of Superintendent Francis. While this is a subject to be considered more fully under a different head, it is

¹ The terms elementary, intermediate, and high school are here used as referring to organization under the six-four-four plan. Intermediate would therefore include grades seven to ten, inclusively.

quite in order to call attention to the fact that such a division of the work of our common schools, with buildings constructed so as to facilitate the work, lends itself more readily to the adjustments that are being called for in our system of school training than any other scheme that has yet been devised. In fact, it may be fairly assumed that if we are to adjust our schools, as a unified system, so as to include vocational education, some such readjustment will be necessary and inevitable.

3. The Elementary Building

The building for an elementary school should be distinctively a children's house. In style of architecture, in arrangement of grounds, and in interior and exterior equipment the study should be to make such a building attractive for children, at the same time that all the essential adjuncts to the exercises of the elementary school should be provided. These would include types of rooms and their suitable arrangement, such as classrooms, workrooms, assembly-room, exercise rooms, lunch rooms, rest rooms for teachers and pupils; proper sanitary conditions, including cloak-rooms and basement; suitable decorations and adornments as well as the utilities of classroom work.

4. The Intermediate Type

The intermediate school should be planned for departmental work, and should have its shop or shops, which may better be one-story affairs and detached from the main structure. The main building should be provided with workrooms and laboratories, although not on as elaborate a scale as the high school. There will be needed, also, study room, rest room, assembly hall, library, lunch room, gymnasium and swimming pool, with

shower-baths. In the equipment for instruction there should be a relatively large amount of illustrative material as compared with the high school, such as maps and charts, pictures, lantern-slides, samples of building materials, collections illustrative of the great manufacturing and commercial industries, etc.

5. City High-School Buildings

The city high-school building should be a composite structure with large grounds. It should be planned so as to permit all kinds of activities typical of the essential features of community life. The main or central structure should provide for the administrative features, classrooms for academic work, and study rooms. Another section of the building or buildings should provide laboratories, lecture-rooms, and all accessories for the different lines of science work. There should be somewhere generous space devoted to art and design and to household arts and home economics. The shops should be by themselves, including equipment for such vocational lines as the particular school is to offer. There should also be suitable space for cafeteria lunch service; gymnasiums with baths and swimming pools for boys and girls separately; an auditorium of ample seating capacity and stage room; a music-room; a library. Some rooms should be provided for the meetings of special groups of students in connection with their activities. If the school is to become a social and literary centre for the community, there should be rooms planned and equipped for the use of clubs and other organizations and for lectures and amusements. All the rooms and departments should be suitably equipped with furnishings and apparatus of the most approved types for the various exercises and activities of the school.

Somewhere in connection with each high-school building or at an accessible distance should be ample athletic grounds with opportunity for field sports for both sexes. In connection with the system of elementary and intermediate schools there should also be ample playground facilities, perhaps larger than the grounds immediately connected with each building, where the school children of each of a series of larger districts of the city may go for their out-of-door exercise and play. These grounds should all be properly equipped and under the supervision of expert directors of play and sport.

6. The Small-City or Town Type

For the small city, the town, or village the study should be to embody in the one building possible as many of the features given above as the nature and size of the community may require. Here, especially, is needed that careful survey suggested earlier in this chapter as a basis for a clearly defined educational policy, in order to determine, among other things, what kind of building is to be supplied. One of the most wasteful things in school administration is to be found in the kind of physical equipment that is often provided in these smaller centres. The necessity arises for a new school building. The honest and well-meaning citizens who constitute the board know little about educational needs or how to provide for them in the physical equipment. They simply know that a house is to be built, with walls and roof, and to be divided into about as many rooms as there are teachers. Result: a structure that is likely to handicap and render more or less ineffective the educational work of that community for twenty years or more.

The difficulty is that these men have had no opportunity to learn the need and value of wise expert direc-

tion in such matters. The provision in each county of one capable expert clothed with the necessary authority would remedy all this and remove one of the serious drawbacks to educational progress. Under a county board such expert direction, affecting all schools, rural as well as in village and town, would be readily practicable; for the same general principles as to buildings and grounds for the town should also apply to the country schools.

7. Special Provisions and Equipments

In each city and county system (assuming county organization of rural and village schools), rooms should be provided, at central points, for the various dental, throat, nose, and ear clinics in connection with the health-officer's department. There should also be provision in the way of rooms and apparatus for the psychological clinic, with special rooms somewhere for the educational treatment prescribed for all abnormal children susceptible to treatment in an educational way. In some instances separate buildings, designed for this particular purpose, are provided for such special educational treatment.

The provision of library facilities for schools has recently become a matter of great interest and consequent growth. In the first place, under the stimulus of great benefactions, especially those by Andrew Carnegie, and aided not a little by the prosperous times of the past fifteen years, public libraries have increased immensely. In the year 1912 alone Andrew Carnegie and the Carnegie Corporation gave \$2,236,953 for public libraries. Gifts from other sources amounted to \$3,265,825, making a total of \$5,502,778 in one year's gifts for libraries. In addition to this there were given 115,954 volumes, 16

sites for buildings, and 13 buildings for library purposes. In most of the larger cities and in connection with a number of the large universities a similar expansion in library facilities is noticeable.¹

In many cases schools have taken advantage of these increased library facilities. Library boards are generally glad to co-operate with the school in making up lists of books suitable for school use and also in providing all conveniences necessary for ready access to this service by the pupils.

In the cities substations and depositories of the central libraries are provided in order to facilitate such access for the schools as well as for the public in general. For the rural towns and districts extension circuits have been established in many instances by means of which books from central libraries may be loaned periodically to the schools.

Such provisions are a great source of benefit to the school work. But boards of education should not overlook the fact that there will need to be a liberal supply of books for daily use available at all times and without loss of time in the pursuit of modern school work. This is true of all grades, but most emphatically true of high schools.

The school museum of illustrative materials for the teaching of history, geography, and other sciences is also capable of becoming a much more important feature in material equipment than it has yet done. In the same category also are lantern-slides, which should be available not only from a central depository of the State, as in the case of New York, but may well become a part of the regular equipment of the school system of a city or county.

¹ See U. S. Com. Report, 1912, vol. I, pp. 379-406.

It may be said in a general way with regard to normal schools, State universities, and special institutions for the education of defectives or delinquents that the same general principles should apply as are laid down for the physical equipment of the lower schools. There should be, first of all, a clearly defined policy as to the general scope and aim of the work to be undertaken as far as it relates to grounds, buildings, or other items of equipment. The development of the physical plan should then be in harmony with this policy, permitting of such flexibility in certain directions as to render possible adjustments to new and unforeseen emergencies. Some way should then be provided by which such plans of development might be made continuous indefinitely, regardless of changes in administrative bodies having in hand the general management of these institutions.

PART THREE

THE ADMINISTRATION OF INSTRUCTION

CHAPTER XII

RECAPITULATION AND DEFINITION

We now come to the discussion of that part of our subject toward which, as an objective, we have thus far been moving; for all the vast and intricate mechanism set up and maintained by society through laws enacted, through the establishment of various types of schools, through boards of education and physical equipment, through the training and selection of teachers, exists primarily that children and youth may be taught. The significant thing about all that we have thus far reviewed, tested, and reconstructed in theory is in the fact that, after all, society is thus to delegate and transfer to educational experts whom society herself provides as supervisors and teachers the actual work of instruction.

1. The Mechanism of Administration Viewed as a Whole

As a preparation for this transfer, we have witnessed the definite setting aside of a large group of men and women organized into a vast system known as the system

of public education. Let us now view this mechanism briefly as a whole from the standpoint of the actual work of instruction. The number of persons included in the complete organization of the public-school system can be given only approximately. There are in State common-school systems 506,453 teachers. Of these 144,784 teachers and 14,392 supervising officers are in villages and cities having populations of 4,000 or more. Four thousand eight hundred and fourteen more are employed in the instructional work of the 196 State normal schools, and 7,321 make up the instructional forces of the 89 colleges and universities under city, State, or national control. This makes a grand total of 518,588, probably not including State and county superintendents and their various assistants.

This instructional body had under instruction (figures for 1909-10) the total number of 12,864,464 persons, or an average of about 25 to each one instructing. The total cost to States and municipalities was, approximately, \$430,384,841, including both operating expenses and additional buildings. These figures give us some idea of the magnitude of the work and of its cost to society. How may this mechanism as a whole best be organized in order to give to society the highest possible dividend from the investment of men and money it is putting into the enterprise?

2. Conclusions from What Precedes

There are some very definite conclusions to be drawn from what has preceded. First of all there needs to be singleness of purpose in the minds of all our citizens in regard to this whole scheme of education. It is established and maintained solely in order that the young, while still most susceptible, may be so educated as to be

able to start out in life abreast of their day in a knowledge of all that is best in human experiences and achievement. The laws of the schools are enacted for this purpose. To this end, and not for political gain, boards of education are elected. Only for this, and not for the benefit of school treasurers or banking houses, are permanent school funds established or taxes levied by district or State. As a definite means to this end, never to give sustenance to those in need by giving away public jobs, are teachers educated and selected for their peculiar work. Not for the benefit of architects, or contractors, or for workmen in the various building trades, are schoolhouses built, *but in order that schooling may be free to all children and youth.*

We are to educate for the future, not for the past. The criteria of standards as to the nature and amount of instruction to be offered are to be ascertained by taking a careful inventory of present needs and of the trend of development of our social and industrial life as affected by education. Such a survey is no longer the work of men unacquainted with educational movements and laws. The expert alone is capable of determining such matters. And there are not nearly enough of these to meet the demands of our rapidly growing system. The weakest spot in this system, the link in the chain by whose weakness its inability to bear the required strain is determined, is this lack of educational experts together with society's hesitancy in turning over to them the direction of the work of our schools.

And what constitutes an educational expert? He is one who has received a broad and liberal education; who has studied education in its history and in its principles; who has a clear and fairly comprehensive knowledge of the social problems affected by or affecting

the education of the schools; who knows experimentally the work of the teacher and the administrator; who is physically and morally strong, a man of tact and sound judgment, and thoroughly imbued with the spirit of democracy. He must needs be an optimist, possessed of a keen sense of humor, a lover of men. Such men, available for the work, are few; and little or no provision is made by society for producing such men.

Be this as it may, however, there is still room for a splendid optimism. The public mind is rapidly becoming enlightened as to the needs of our schools. Education is coming more and more to be viewed as a sure and successful investment both for the social group and for the individual. Not a year passes now without some notable advance movement expressed in the form of legislation in from one to a dozen or more States of the Union. We are building better schools, we are improving the standards of work, we are organizing schools on a more democratic basis, and all our schools are becoming more free and open to the young of all classes.

3. Administration of Instruction Defined

We need now to consider briefly what is meant by the administration of instruction. Various efforts have been made at defining the term "administration" as related to education. Still the application of it seems vague and indistinct in the minds of most writers. In discussing the administration of education in this general and inclusive way we have been trying to give to the term a clearer and more comprehensive significance. Thus administration is established in law. It includes all directive and constructive features of education. Units of control are its fields of operation. Boards, superintendents, special supervisors, principals, and teachers are all

parts of the official mechanism of administration. There are as many aspects of administration as there are units of control, down to the individual schoolroom or classroom presided over by the individual teacher. In each of the larger units of control there are varying aspects of administration. Thus supervision of a county or city is an aspect of administration.

We have become habituated to the use of the title of superintendent as having to do rather definitely with the work of instruction. At the same time, in the course of evolution, the superintendent in a city has come to represent much more than instruction and the things closely related thereto. Only in recent years have men come to understand and appreciate this difference and to divide the different interests which the one superintendent has been compelled to assume among several departmental heads, all a part of administration but not of the direct work of instruction. And now it is proposed that in the large city there should be one educational expert, as general superintendent, over all these various departments, in order properly to correlate them and render them more effective in accomplishing that for which the schools exist.

We have preferred to consider administration under the two general headings: (1) Society acting through boards. (2) The administration of instruction through experts trained by society and selected by boards for their particular work either as supervisors or teachers. And what are the administrative features to be discussed under instruction? First of all is supervision; for this is, next to the board, the leading executive factor in administration. As we have seen, the superintendent is often, also, close to society. The line of demarcation and the intermediary relationship is not yet clearly

defined; the office of the expert is not yet fully understood by the people at large.

Naturally, then, there are all those things which lie close to society's side of the line, as well as the things pertaining directly to instruction that have come to be recognized as problems of supervision: attendance, health; the care of defectives and delinquents; the curricula of the schools; the selection of teachers and their training in service; classification and promotion of pupils. There is the teacher in the classroom, directing instruction, organizing materials, moulding habits and conduct. All of this is a part of the administration of instruction.

There might properly be included under this discussion the whole field of class management and method. But this phase of administration has already been thoroughly and ably discussed and developed by numerous writers. It will be sufficient for our purpose here to call attention to the more general problems named above.

4. Things to Be Kept in Mind in the Discussion to Follow

The tendency of late has been rather to an over-emphasis of administrative problems. Such a condition often follows a general awakening to the importance of something that has previously been overlooked. It is to be hoped that out of this wave of intense interest and the consequent discussion may come a clearer understanding of the relation of administrative parts to each other and of each to the entire problem of how best and most successfully to educate children and youth.

We need especially to keep in mind for the discussion that is to follow certain principles implied in what has been said concerning the training and selection of

teachers. Among these we may mention first of all the principle that the instructional force must have at hand and be familiar with the necessary materials of education. This will be assured if society makes proper provision for maintaining schools, on the one hand, and establishes an efficient system for the training and selection of teachers on the other.

Next, they should know, as far as possible, the nature as well as the order and manner of development of the physical, mental, and moral life of children and youth, and be able to adjust the materials and processes of education to this knowledge. This is only another way of saying that all members of the instructional forces should have adequate professional training. The statement of such a proposition should not be construed, however, to mean that all should possess equally such knowledge. As a matter of fact, few if any one of a group will possess it all. The point is that in the organization of any instructional force there should be represented all essential phases of this knowledge. A proper adjustment in the division of labor will do the rest.

The members of the instructional corps of any school need to understand clearly the aims of education from the standpoint both of the individual and of society. Unless this is true there can be no central idea about which to organize materials and plans of action—a very vital condition to success in administering instruction.

CHAPTER XIII

SUPERVISION

School supervision in the United States presents two aspects chiefly: (1) supervision from the standpoint of society; (2) from the standpoint of the school. Under the second of these are to be included the regular supervision of instruction, variously distributed in larger systems, and special supervision (*a*) of subjects, as music, drawing, manual arts; and (*b*) of special conditions related to instruction, as attendance, health, and sanitation.

1. The Educational Expert of the System

In the administration of instruction society gives over to specially chosen experts the direction of the whole process subject to the approval of an intermediary board. This stewardship the superintendent of a system of schools primarily stands for. He may share it, by delegation, with assistants, special supervisors, and supervising principals; but society ultimately holds him responsible for results. Through this stewardship society provides for the transfer and application of what it has done directly in establishing schools, in providing for their maintenance, and in the preparation and selection of teachers, to the actual work for which the entire organism exists—the instruction of children and youth and of all who should share in the instruction of the schools.

2. What the Position Involves

Hence it is that the first aspect of this trust placed in the office of the superintendent is a looking toward society. It involves, first of all, an accounting for the uses made of the material equipment and support provided. This obligation is shared with the board which, indeed, bears the greater part of it. In the second place, it requires of the superintendent, or of some special administrative officer, that the material conditions be carefully considered with reference to the future needs of the schools. The relative adequacy of the teaching force must also be reported, together with a statement of any needed changes, increase, or improvement which should be provided for. The materials and processes of education as represented in the programme of studies and exercises will need to be carefully considered and judged as to their adequacy in the light of general social and industrial needs of the community. The board will usually look to the superintendent for recommendations on such matters. Those things also which pertain to the general social life of the school, as well as the relation of the school to the social life of the community, will call for a portion of the attention of the supervisory expert of the system. It is the superintendent who should know what to emphasize in the work of the schools as indicated by the general social and economic conditions of the community. If we add to this the very important function of looking after the physical condition and well-being of the children of all the schools of a given community we shall see that the field for supervision even in this portion, most remote of all from the actual work of instruction, carries with it great responsibil-

ities and calls for men correspondingly capable and efficient.

It is the larger administrative function just described which calls for men and women of great executive ability, especially in our larger cities; but from the point of view of the school and the purpose for which it is established the second aspect of supervision is most vitally important. In this second capacity, first of all, the superintendent is the director and adviser in the work of instruction. He must see to it that a wise use is made of both time and materials toward attaining the end sought. He must guard against failures on the part of the teachers under him. To do this, after they are once selected and assigned, he must carefully coach the weak or the unskilled that may happen to be in the group. He must look well after the physical health of the teachers, their mode of living, their recreations, as far as he may do so without seeming to meddle.

He it is who will strive to keep the teachers under his supervision at their best. This he may do (*a*) by sympathetic assistance and counsel; (*b*) by constructive criticism; (*c*) by bringing to their attention the latest things in educational progress and encouraging them to "blaze" new ways into the untrodden paths of educational procedure toward which we are all looking, moving; in other words, by good, all-around leadership.

Beyond and yet closely related to all this he finds time to study the problems connected with the promotion and classification of pupils. He looks into the problems of delinquents and defectives and seeks ways and means by which these may be better cared for. He inquires carefully into the causes and the cure for elimination and retardation. If the situation lends itself in the least hopeful manner to such accomplishment, he

seeks to make the schools real vital centres of community life and interest for the purpose of bringing about a wide-spread and general social betterment.

3. Special and Grade Supervision

In the case of special grade supervision, as kindergarten, elementary, grammar, or high school, the assumption is that there are particular features of the work at these different stages of the educative process which call for special study and for peculiar directive ability in supervision. In the case of supervisors of special subjects the situation is quite different. This type of supervision has evidently grown out of the effort to introduce into the programme of studies subjects with which the regular teachers were not familiar. Doctor W. A. Jessup, in a study of the "Social Factors Affecting Special Supervision in the Public Schools," has brought out the fact that with some special subjects, such as music, drawing, penmanship, and physical education, the prevailing method is that the "new material is taught by specialists at regular intervals, followed by drill on the same by the regular teacher." In manual training, domestic science, and sewing, Doctor Jessup found the typical method to be "special subjects entirely under the charge of specialists and all lessons given by specialists. The slight tendency away from this method toward one in which the regular teacher has a share of responsibility is confined almost entirely to the large cities."¹

In a few instances only do elementary-school systems provide for anything more than such general supervision of music, drawing, penmanship, and physical edu-

¹ "Social Factors Affecting Special Supervision," Doctor W. A. Jessup, Teachers College Series, Contributions to Education, pp. 116-117, New York, 1911.

cation outside of the regular teaching force. At Gary, Ind., a plan is in operation by which the special teacher instructs all classes instead of supervising. This is accomplished by arranging the work departmentally throughout. On the other hand, large high schools much more commonly provide for the special teaching of all these lines, usually without the need of much supervision.

4. Supervision of Rural and Village Schools

The types of supervision as determined by the established units of control and the kinds of schools which have resulted have already been named in discussing boards of education. Taking these in about the same order as previously referred to, the supervision of rural and village schools would first be considered. Under present conditions we have found this to be very inadequate. Outside of New England, where town supervision is provided, and New York, where the State is districted, regardless of county lines, by the State commissioner of education, such supervision is confined almost entirely to county superintendents. Under this latter condition the supervision of instruction in rural schools is largely indirect. The superintendent or his assistant visits the schools once or twice a year. They observe the work of the teacher, the equipment, the general conduct of the school. Usually they talk to the pupils, and they offer to the teachers such meagre suggestions as their infrequent visits make possible.

In many States these superintendents are not required to represent any very high standards professionally; in other words, they are not usually experts in the true sense. Neither their time nor their preparation enable them to work out a definite educational policy such as

to mark strongly the character of instruction given in the schools under them. Yet this is their chief business. Sometimes—in most instances, in fact—they supplement their visits by a kind of indirect supervision. They send out circular letters to the teachers. They hold district and county meetings of teachers to discuss management and methods in the schools. The work of the county institute is devoted largely to similar purposes.

The village schools frequently fare better. These usually employ a principal teacher who does some supervisory work. He helps teachers to prepare daily recitation and study programmes; aids them in getting the necessary materials; supervises promotions and classification; aids in maintaining good order and right conduct. Because he must usually teach during the school sessions, he has to do most of this indirectly or before and after school. Ordinarily such a principal is a man or a woman of little experience, a graduate of a normal school with two years of training to his credit beyond the high school, or a green college graduate or student of two or three years' standing, with enough to do to manage his own classes without bothering much concerning his assistant teachers.

5. County Boards and Better Teachers the Chief Needs

It is evident enough that a county board, empowered to employ a sufficient number of supervisors to take good care of this whole matter of instruction in these two types of schools would greatly improve conditions. Furthermore, if we could once establish higher standards of preparation of teachers for all our schools, as well as of supervision of instruction, much of the difficulty would disappear. The schools of Prussia, we are told,

are able to get along with a comparatively small amount of supervision. This is due chiefly to the fact that none but reasonably efficient teachers are permitted in the schools. The training of these is such that, with a programme of studies furnished by the State, they are able to carry the work of instruction along with a minimum of supervision. Inspection, chiefly, is all that the schools require. Before we carry the increase in the supervisory forces too far it might be well for us to get right generally on the more fundamental proposition—the properly prepared teacher.

6. Supervision of Small Cities

The small city with a population ranging from five thousand to one hundred thousand may readily constitute a second type. In such cities, as a rule, we find all the executive duties under the board of education, except such as can be handled readily and efficiently by committees of the board, devolving upon the one man as head of the school system. Such a position calls for a man of great versatility. He needs not only to know the principles and laws of education, but also the best business methods as they pertain to the management of schools.

We are only just awakening to the fact that this position calls for a man trained for his job. The rapid growth of urban populations makes the demand for new men in this field quite worthy of consideration on the part of those who are preparing for administrative work in education. There are now in the United States (census of 1910) 1,191 cities of the class referred to. These are divided as follows as to size: 5,000 to 10,000, 632 cities; 10,000 to 25,000, 374 cities; 25,000 to 100,000, 185 cities. This offers a suggestive gradation for pro-

motions where a superintendent is seeking a larger field. Besides these there are 50 cities of 100,000 or over to which one may also ultimately aspire. This is saying nothing of the numerous subordinate offices, as assistant superintendents and ward principals, which are needed in the larger cities. These places, also, are in line of promotion for those who are qualified.

When we consider the importance of these positions in their relationship to the proper administration of instruction, and also the number of people needed, it seems high time that States were beginning to make some adequate provision for the special preparation of this class of educational experts. Thus far, in the main, we have been accustomed to let these superintendents "come up" through varied experiences, well equipped in a practical way, with a rich fund of empirical knowledge. They have learned by imitating or by ready invention where a new situation has been presented. They have come by a devious course to a fair success, but the way they came they cannot chart. They can tell to others how a thing is done, but, as a rule, they know not the principles involved nor yet how to apply principles in solving new problems of administration. As a class they are rapidly passing.

A few institutions, like Teachers College at Columbia University, or Harvard in its work with the schoolmen about Cambridge and Boston, have taken up the problem of the training of experts for the work of supervision. The time is not far distant, it is to be hoped, when this will be done extensively by our State institutions. Educational literature dealing with the problems peculiar to the superintendent's work is rapidly increasing. From the standpoint of permanency and a fair compensation the conditions were never so favorable as now.

Some real and worthy careers are opening for strong, well-trained men. At each succeeding call that comes for a well-qualified man to fill one of these places there is demonstrated, over and over, the shortage of men of the right kind—men that are being sought.

Experience, as a part of one's equipment for the work of supervision, is a necessary factor. Knowledge of the various standards, tests, and measures of efficiency in school work and of their application is also very essential. It would be a great step forward for our universities to offer scholarships, or fellowships where possible, for men who have had good initial training and sufficient experience to demonstrate unquestioned ability to prepare more fully for such work. If practicable they should serve a brief probationary term, as a part of this training, under capable expert direction. A still better arrangement would be a plan for directing their studies while they are holding actual positions.

As stated above, the superintendent of a small city system is apt to be the educational factotum of the board. But even here certain relief may be had through committees and through combinations of duties with such assistants as the office may afford. The secretary of the board may also be the attendance officer, or purchasing agent, or all three. A regular practising physician may take care of the medical inspection and health supervision, especially if there be a visiting nurse or two. By such means the superintendent may be free to devote more time to the direct work of instruction and the problems more immediately attendant thereto. He may still have to conduct his own psychological clinic unless he can find in some principal or high-school teacher one qualified to do this at a slight additional compensation and with a programme of class work or other duties ad-

justed so as to give the required time for the work. Some local or otherwise available and capable architect may be retained, as needed, to advise with superintendent and board in regard to new buildings and all matters pertaining to the development of the physical equipment of the schools.

The point to the whole matter is that the all-important thing is the instructional work; and a city does not need to be very large to make of its proper supervision a man's task. There is no weaker point, to-day, in our scheme of administration, than that caused by this lack of men properly trained, both in scholarship and professionally, for the work of supervision.

7. Supervision of Large-City Systems

The peculiarity in the problem of supervision of instruction which a large city presents is chiefly one of distribution of function. Here all the accessory problems are taken care of by special departments. Two of these, attendance and physical education and health, will be discussed in separate chapters. But the supervision of the work of teaching alone calls for an organization quite complex in itself. First there is the question of assistants directly under the general superintendent. Shall these be on the basis of a horizontal division, by grades; or on a vertical division, by districts; or a division by subjects for consideration, as music, drawing, manual training, attendance, physical training, and health? In either case what shall be their duties, what their authority? The first two of these methods of distribution are in common use, the third but slightly and in an embryonic way as yet. In this last form there is involved the idea of efficient supervision of the teaching work under the supervising principals,

who would report directly to the superintendent or to an office assistant. Such supervisors would make up the advisory board of the general superintendent as is customary where the other plans of distribution are in use. Each in his own department would refer all special cases to the superintendent, who would again refer to his advisory board, for more thorough consideration, all the more difficult and complex questions which might arise. As a matter of fact, the three methods of division are more or less combined in a number of our larger cities.

8. Purposes and Aims of Supervising Agencies

Whatever the plan adopted, the aim is to cause the supervising agencies of the school to help as much as possible in making the instructional work of the schools strong and effective. With this purpose in view, and with the schools of a city organized into rather large units, as is generally the case, it would seem that the supervising principal should be the most dependable factor. Whatever else may be done from the office of the superintendent should be to help and to stimulate the work of the principal and to take care of such special features of instruction as may call for a more definitely expert treatment.

In order to be able to furnish the necessary stimulus the special supervisor should study carefully the results attained by a principal in a given school situation. These results, compared with those attained by other principals, should point to relative excellence of method and spirit which these principals maintain. The entire system should be so organized and conducted as to admit of the highest possible degree of freedom and initiative on the part of teacher, principal, supervisor of dis-

trict, grade, or subject. Each in his place should be measured by the results attained as well as by a comparison of method and management.

Stimuli from the supervisor or principal as applied to the teacher at work may take on several different forms. The stimulus to-day may come through directing the teacher to some new and helpful materials that apply directly to the problem in hand. To-morrow may come the need of criticism—a fine discernment that shall see both the bad and the good in a piece of work, that shall mean hope rather than fear, be constructive rather than destructive. Another day an illustration may be suggested in the work of another teacher dealing with a similar problem. Or courage, hope, persistence may come through some little special notice of a piece of work, not perfect, yet full of promise.

Such daily contact, sympathetic, full of suggestions, quick to appreciate, is the great factor in this work with the real workers—the teachers with their classes. The same general principles apply to all supervisors whether of grades, special subjects, or all the schools of a given district. First, and most emphatically, they apply to supervising principals; next, in a more general way, to assistant, district, or special supervisor; lastly, to the general superintendent, before whom, on some occasion, each and every one of those of whose work he is the final co-ordinator must pass in review.

The entire supervising force should be on the lookout for that work which is meritorious and manage to discover for it some reward. The work of the teacher is hard enough at best. It will lighten the burden if what is really well done is always recognized in some way, and it will tend materially to increase the number of good, competent teachers. The number of super-

visors who have learned the art of criticism to that degree necessary in making such discriminations in the work of teachers is surprisingly few. We have said that criticism, for instance, should be constructive rather than destructive. In this respect we may find in our schools at least four types of supervisors. First there is the supervisor who carefully, kindly points out defects and suggests the remedies even to the extent of illustrating his points if necessary. Next there is the one who commends but at the same time suggests an entirely different treatment, the man of rare constructive ability in the field of instruction. Both these types of criticism are constructive, stimulating, wholesome. Then there is a third type, the faultfinder, the one who tears down without offering anything to replace what he has utterly demolished. Such criticism is purely destructive. And a fourth class is no better although a little more pleasant to take; it is that of the supervisor who is always lauding, indiscriminately, everything he sees. His words are but fulsome flattery and, in the end, are likely to prove destructive of both courage and effort.

9. The Superintendent and the Training of Teachers in Service

The fine art of all arts of the superintendent and his assistants is the art of training teachers. No small part of the burden of school management is that of improving the teachers in service—of so directing their activities in school and at sundry other times as to result in a continuous growth of each individual. This is a part of the business of the leading spirit in any and all of the types or units of supervision we have here discussed. There is growing a feeling of restlessness among the

great body of teachers as to the real value of much that is demanded in the name of "professional training." Again and again teachers are called from their work and the schools closed in order that instruction of pupils may give place to the process of "inspiring" and instructing teachers. A programme is arranged, often without much forethought or continuity of purpose, and a meeting is announced for a day, two days—perhaps a whole week. And in a vast majority of cases much of that to which all are commanded or exhorted to give heed is entirely irrelevant to the work or growth of those for whose improvement it is offered.

In the epoch of the "eagle-screaming" celebration of Independence Day, or the torchlight parade as a winner of votes, there may have been a place for these teachers' gatherings where stock generalities and entertaining speeches made up the entire programme. But in this day of seeking for new truth, of discovering the principles on which processes are to be based, it is time to organize these efforts for professional advancement about something more definite, more tangible. Too much time is involved of both pupils and teachers, too much of the teachers' hard-earned funds, to warrant such inadequate if not wholly useless procedure. The superintendent of any unit—county, village, or city—who is not prepared to lead teachers under his charge to something more definitely related to the problems everywhere calling for solution in the field of education, should immediately seek to discover what is good form in writing a humble resignation.

10. Function of Supervisors in the Selection of Teachers

Not only must the superintendent and his aids look after the training of teachers in service but also the replenishing of the ranks from year to year to make up for growth and loss. Many a superintendent's plans have been defeated and his efforts nullified by failure to secure the right kind of teachers for the annual vacancies. Generally speaking, boards of education leave the selection and nomination of teachers in the hands of the superintendent and principals. The exceptional cases, where "pull" is still made the basis of selections at times, are usually to be found in those cities where boards are appointive and so subordinated to the political régime of municipal governments.

The recommendations of the superintendent in regard to reappointments as well as in naming new teachers call for very full and careful consideration. There is involved not only a suitable salary schedule but also the whole matter of ranking and efficiency of teachers as a basis for determining the schedule and each teacher's right to promotion. Nothing can prove more fatal to any system than the establishment of a scale of salaries which increases on the basis of time of service solely without any check upon growth and efficiency on the part of each member of the teaching force. There are numerous ways of determining these matters. It is not in the province of this treatment of administration to undertake to give a model for a field so large and varied. Each system should work out its own scheme, in the light of local conditions, but with insistence upon some clear evidence of growth and at least sustained efficiency as a basis for every advance.

There is involved, incidentally, the need of definite information for the board as to the range of salaries paid in other cities where similar social and economic conditions prevail. Maximum, minimum, and median standards should be available, not only from the cities of the country at large, but also from a carefully selected group of cities similarly conditioned as to size, cost of living, and such other factors as would affect the status of teaching in comparison with the local schools.

One thing that has been said before will bear repeating here: the teachers of any local system would better be selected from the State or country at large. Other things equal, such a plan will bring better results as to the vital quality of the teaching corps. The local training-school may have been and may still be expedient as a temporary means of securing a sufficient number of well-trained teachers. No well-informed superintendent would be likely to recommend the establishment of such an institution on any other ground.

II. Things Superintendents Should Know

The superintendent, to be successful, will need to have clearly defined views and a working policy concerning such problems as attendance; health; physical education; classification and promotion of pupils and teachers; the care of defective children; the causes and prevention of retardation and elimination; vocational guidance and selection; and trade, night, and other forms of continuation schools.

The wise superintendent will keep in touch with the financial situation and the limitations his board is working under in this respect. In all his plans for enlargement and innovations he will carefully consult these interests in the light of what he feels will be the truest

economy in the long run. Although the supervising architect may be charged with preparing the plans for all new buildings or additions to old ones, a right condition of things will leave the final approval, from the standpoint of adaptability, to the superintendent and his aids. Nothing is more trying to a conscientious superintendent than to find plans for buildings adopted in which important features, educationally, have been overlooked or omitted. For this reason the general superintendent should always have a check on the building plans for the schools.

Similar conditions make it desirable that all the special departments that in any way concern the instructional work of the schools should be subject to review by the central supervising office. We have noted a tendency in some cities to place the supervision of health and also of playgrounds under departments of the municipal government instead of under the board of education. Both these special fields bear a direct and vital relationship to the work of the schools and should therefore be under the direction of school authorities and subject to recommendations and approval by the superintendent of instruction.

12. State Supervision

There remain for our consideration here such forms of supervision as are provided under larger units of control. That for counties has already been discussed as a part of a plan for county organization and a county board. Next above that comes State supervision. It was probably a wise foresight on the part of those who framed laws establishing this office that, in most instances, little real authority was vested in the office. Under our present prevailing condition of political con-

trol a partisan official possessed of great power in such an office might easily play havoc with State systems of education.

We have already discussed this anomalous situation as it exists in many States under the chapter on boards of education. Even with a more ideal condition as to the method of choosing such an official, if we adhere to the principles heretofore laid down, the State superintendent's office should have little or nothing to do, in a direct way, with the instructional work of the schools. But this is not saying that this office may not be a very useful and important one in its relation to instruction in a democratic scheme of education. Such an official, acting as the executive of a State board with departmental assistants under him, becomes a very necessary and desirable factor in the educational organism.

First of all there are the educational laws of the State to be enforced. This the State superintendent, in co-operation with county and district superintendents and boards, is, or should be, definitely charged with and duly empowered to execute. Incidental to this executive relation will appear also the obligation to point out to the State board, as a basis for legislative recommendation, wherein, if at all, the laws are defective or inadequate. This legal aspect of the office no doubt represents the most vital service which the superintendent can render. Such an official, backed by a board of representative men, should be able to develop the legal basis for a strong State organization capable of meeting all demands in the field of public education.

Then there is the certification of teachers. Undoubtedly, this whole matter should be subject to the control and careful supervision of the State executive, again in co-operation with county and city authorities. It is

believed by some, also, that such a department should keep a careful record of the teaching staff of the State and thus be able to give reliable information to school authorities concerning the professional records and personal characters of teachers. This would save many schools from serious mistakes and would also be a protection to the deserving teacher in need of a position. Such a record seems to belong naturally with some central office having to do with the certification of teachers.

All reports necessary to show the educational condition and needs of the State the superintendent should have authority to collect, tabulate, and publish for the information of legislators, boards of education, the public press, and all those engaged in educational work. Such a system of reports, well chosen and wisely interpreted, can be made to touch every vital problem of education in a State. It can do much to eliminate incompetent officers by insistent demand for the information they should give, but in many cases may be found incapable of reporting. It is capable of becoming a strong stimulus to the entire system of schools. The trouble with most of these offices now is that in the matter of reports they are ruled solely by what is traditional or what seems to be politic.

Through such a central office of the State should be conducted an inspection of all school buildings and properties used in education of whatever grade with reference to their sanitary condition, their safety, and their adequacy for the work that is required to be done. This might be done directly or through co-operation with county and city officials, but should always be subject to strict review by the State department.

In cases where the State offers subsidies to schools the office of the superintendent should determine whether

or not the conditions of granting such subsidies are being fulfilled. But the granting of such subsidies should never be conditioned in such a way as seriously to curtail the freedom and initiative of local authorities as regards the instructional work of the schools.

Another important service which the office of the State educational executive may render is in the supervision of teachers' institutes and other general teachers' organizations. Attention has already been called to the waste which often characterizes these really desirable factors in educational progress. There are a few States where provision has already been made for a stronger directive control. With a properly constituted State board and executive, under carefully defined powers and duties, these gatherings, often so weak and meaningless, might become powerful forces for professional uplift and the betterment of our schools. It need not be said, of course, that all this should be done in a co-operative spirit, with local, county, city, and State forces working together to the same end. The real point to the matter is the need of more definite central supervision with designated authority.

With such an array as the above of activities for a State superintendent, it is evident enough that there is ample room for such an official, with a strong staff, to aid in co-ordinating, stimulating, and improving without need of infringement upon any essential feature of local control, initiative or participation. Yet there is that in our political atmosphere which seems to engender in men who win success through the popular vote a thirst for increase of power and control. Always there appears to go with such an office a restlessness, an itching for whatever lies adjacent in a common field of service, an ambition for aggrandizement of office through numbers and

an increased annual budget. Such a spirit is not in accord with the spirit of democracy in education. It is the selfsame spirit that has built and fostered the evils of political patronage and political "spoils." From all such may our free public schools be delivered!

With such opportunities as those enumerated above for influencing the schools, it is evident that the indirect effect of the office of State superintendent would make possible a much more efficient grade of instruction. Thus, while communities would be left with a maximum of freedom, the ability of the State's official to aid in the general advancement of schools of all classes would be much greater than that which generally prevails at the present time.

13. Supervision of Normal Schools Needed

Where a State has a number of normal schools some provision should be made for a central supervision of them. If they are under a unified State board then the expert executive staff should provide for this. The real need of such supervision is more in matters of instruction than anything else outside of what the business management of the board could take care of. It could not be expected that a board of lay members should deal with instructional work. The need would be, chiefly, for a standardizing of the work which all would undoubtedly do in common. There would also be need of some direction in differentiating individual schools with reference to certain lines of work so as to make an equitable distribution of such special features without omitting any essential thing. There are several of these special lines of work which all may not need to undertake in order to meet the demands. Certainly all should not undertake them because some one school does.

It is true that these matters might be managed through co-operation, but some one should at least be charged with the duty of bringing it about. If special supervision of this kind were established, including supervision of teachers' courses given in high schools, it would help materially in many of the States toward bringing about the establishment of trustworthy standards which all interested persons or boards might have access to.

14. Supervision of Instruction in a University

It may sound a little strange for one to refer to such a thing as the supervision of instruction in a university. Yet why should it? A considerable proportion of the instructional work done in our modern American universities, as every one knows, is done by assistants, or fellows, or instructors, most of whom know nothing about teaching except by that sort of empiricism which one has by remembering how he was taught. There has been a great change in this regard with the rapid growth of our great State institutions and along with that the growth in graduate work. If it is right and desirable that novices in the work of teaching should be supervised anywhere above the elementary grades it is certainly in order here.

The old plea for academic freedom can hardly be urged with any justness against such supervision. States have organized these institutions in order to give the very best possible training to young men and women. As a matter of sound economy, the organization of the work should be the best possible as calculated to bring to the State the largest returns both in quality of training and the number successfully cared for. Besides, as we have just shown, there are changed conditions in our institu-

tions which call for a modified form of administration in this particular. And it is probably cheaper and better for the State to provide for the supervision rather than to pay the greater price for men of wider experience, even if enough men were to be had, which seems not to be the case at present.

Such supervision might readily be provided by departments, subject to advisement from the office of each dean or director of a college or school in the university. If rightly entered into it would greatly improve the instruction of lower classes, would tend to reduce the "mortality" among freshmen, and would undoubtedly save many worthy young instructors from failure and premature retirement from the work of teaching. Here, again, the force of an outworn tradition relentlessly grips the situation and prevents what might easily mark a great forward movement in college and university administration.

15. Inter-Institutional Supervision

We come finally to a certain phase of supervision which includes something of all these other types. There are certain inter-relationships among the different educational institutions when considered as to grade. As the individual moves forward from elementary to intermediate school, from intermediate to high school, and from high school to college or university, there are articulations to be looked after and readjustments to be made. These steps should be so arranged as to come about with the least possible waste in expense, or time, or spirit.

The method of fixing arbitrary schedules or programmes of study by State departments or by the institution higher up has been proven unsatisfactory and inadequate. For every one knows that programmes of

study are live and sensitive things—organisms that are changing, growing with every passing year. Hence the fixing of set standards to be formally applied by a State department to all conditions alike that may exist in a given State has proven impracticable. On the other hand, the institution higher up is apt to fix its own base line, regardless of how far up the one below can come, and preserve its normal condition as a stage in a continuous evolution. This, too, is unsatisfactory.

The method of co-operative study of the scheme of materials and exercises that make up the curricula of all our schools is more to the purpose. This naturally brings about comparisons, readjustments working downward instead of upward, and at the same time the normal flexibility and adaptability of the programme as a growing, changing organism. With such a plan in operation it matters not so much from what quarter the supervision and adjustment of these articulations for every-day working purposes may come. The one essential feature of it is that it should be in rather close and intimate touch with the work that is actually in progress on both sides of a given line of contact.

In the case of the lower grades, this work may be well cared for by the supervising forces in our city and county systems. The chief point of difficulty lies between the high school and the higher institutions. The most successful working plan thus far devised in this case has been found to be the co-operative plan for the study of standards, with a man of large experience in public high-school work coming back to these schools as adjuster from a place in the ranks of university instructors.

CHAPTER XIV

THE INSPECTION OF SCHOOLS

1. Definitions

From the preceding chapters it must be evident that we are still using most of the terms referring to educational administration somewhat loosely. In the discussion of "Supervision," for instance, the terms "superintendent" and "supervisor" are sometimes used as synonyms and sometimes as having quite different shades of meaning. Our dictionaries, in fact, permit the treatment of the three terms "inspection," "supervision," and "superintending" as synonyms. It seems fitting, however, that the educational public, at least, should agree upon differentiated meanings of these terms in any discussion of administration. Professor E. C. Elliott has already called attention to such a differentiation when he speaks of the external forms of control of the school as "(a) the legislative, (b) the administrative, (c) the supervisory, and (d) the inspectorial."¹ Probably not all would agree with his use of these terms. For instance, he uses "administrative" in a much more restricted sense than the common acceptance of this term among educational writers seems to warrant. He thus makes the terms "supervisory" and "inspectorial"

¹ "Instruction; Its Organization and Control," by Edward C. Elliott, chap. V, pp. 107-110, in "High School Education," by C. H. Johnston and others. New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1912.

co-ordinates of "administrative," instead of subdivisions of it, as in the present writing. He also fails to differentiate supervision from superintending, although we are much in need of the two terms with a distinctness of meaning at our present stage of progress in the formulation of a science of education.

In our chapter on "Supervision" the purely synonymous use of the three terms "inspection," "supervision," and "superintending" has been adhered to or implied because we are there dealing in a general way with several phases of closely related aspects of the administration of instruction in our schools. The manifestly rapid development of a field generally designated as the "inspection of schools" makes it desirable at this point to define the three functions to which we refer when we make use of the three terms in question. Such defining is also necessary in order to be more strictly in accord with our present plan of treatment of the field of school administration.

We speak of a superintendent as one who exercises a watchful care and direction over a group or series of processes directed toward a common end or interest. Such a function may or may not involve direct personal contact with those directly engaged in carrying out the details of the work which a given project requires. It may even be true that a superintendent is practically unknown, as a person, to most of those actually at work under him. At the same time, these workers may be overseen, or "supervised," by experts selected for that purpose. Thus, the supervisor comes into direct personal contact with those of whose work he is the overseer.

In a small system, where comparatively few workmen are involved, one person may perform the two functions.

Likewise, the supervisor may be a workman, or a superintendent both supervisor and workman—all three in the one person. But the one who is *only* a workman cannot be a supervisor; nor can the one who is *only* supervisor and workman be said to be a superintendent.

We need these two terms, each with a distinct meaning, when we are discussing large city school systems or other large units of control in education. Otherwise, we shall constantly be getting confused in our discussions of administration. So, also, the terms “inspector” and “inspection” are coming to be a necessity in our administrative terminology.

An “inspector” is one who looks into or investigates a process or an institution in an official capacity. He is not habitually in personal contact with the workers, nor does he necessarily have authority to direct as superintendent. He represents a third factor, whose function it is to see whether or not the end sought by the process or institution is being attained. It is true that either the one who superintends or the one that supervises may also at the same time be acting as inspector; but not the other way about if we adhere strictly to the meaning of terms. Thus far in practice there has been a general confusion of function as well as of terminology; but we seem to be gradually emerging into a condition where distinctions in both respects are to be more marked and specific.

In a large city system, for instance, there is necessarily a superintendent managing and directing the work of all the schools. But this superintendent must depend upon others to directly supervise instruction. These supervisors we have found to be either (*a*) those who oversee the instruction in special subjects, as music, drawing, domestic arts, and science; (*b*) those who super-

vise the instruction in a given district, or of a given grade; or (c) supervising principals placed over the schools of separate buildings.

In a State system we may have a general superintendent of instruction with special functions distributed among several assistants. There may also be inspectors, such as of school buildings with reference to sanitation and safety, or of the general character and work of the schools with reference to certain standards required as a basis for the distribution of State funds or other purposes. We could scarcely say that there would be any strictly supervisory function by the State, with reference to instruction in the schools, unless it should be of that in State institutions.

2. Recent Development of the Inspectorial Function in Education

The office of inspector in city systems is at present confined chiefly to the two functions of medical inspection and the inspection of buildings and grounds. Aside from this the development of inspection has thus far been mostly by States as units rather than by districts, townships, or counties.

In the inspectorial work of States, as we have found in most other phases of school administration, the different units have as yet had but little in common. The work first developed in the East, chiefly in Massachusetts. Here it has related largely to matters of health and safety, with some standardizing of schools as a basis for certain subsidies granted by the State. We may readily summarize the purposes of inspection as thus far developed under the following heads: (1) health and sanitation; (2) safety of buildings; (3) the classification and standardizing of schools (a) as a basis for subsidizing, (b) as

preparing for technical and professional training in higher institutions, (c) as fitting for certification in some department of civil service. The widest possible variations have occurred under (3).

3. Some Interesting Variations and Their Causes

In New England and the Eastern States schools have been standardized chiefly as a basis for subsidization. Until recently the matter of preparation for college and university work has been cared for in that section by means of entrance examinations and by certification based upon the scholarship records of students entering from the different secondary schools. The New England College Entrance Certifying Board is one of the resulting developments. The very elaborate plan of inspection recently developed in New York stands out as a very striking type, unlike all others in most respects. Under this system regents' examinations and school inspection are inseparably associated. The inspectors are chosen primarily to inspect by academic subjects, although they also may be expected to check up all the academic work of any school they may visit. These inspectors are looking especially into the instructional work of the secondary schools in order to make possible the highest degree of progress and to see to it that the examinations correspond to the work of the schools. They are also charged with the enforcement of such legal provisions as compulsory attendance, fire laws, sanitation, and equipment generally. As these latter features become adjusted their work takes on a form more pedagogical in character, thus assuming the supervisory aspect.

To the States of the South and West, however, a somewhat different problem of inspection is presented. Most

of these States have developed strong normal schools, State colleges, and universities. The last named institutions early adopted the certificating plan for admission of high-school graduates. Long before there was any thought of State high-school supervision or inspection in those sections the State universities found it necessary to inspect and standardize high schools in order to be able to operate successfully the certificating plan. Such inspection began in Michigan and spread rapidly to the North Central States. More recently the Southern States, through the co-operation of the General Education Board, have adopted a similar plan.

This relationship was entirely voluntary on the part of high schools and universities and was entered upon for mutual helpfulness in furthering the cause of State education. The standards established were usually those recognized as essential to efficiency of work along the lines of preparation everywhere considered as the staples of high-school education.

Gradually through the North and West other influences have developed to modify this situation. Some States have undertaken to subsidize high schools. Others have passed laws specifying completion of high-school work as a prerequisite to certain privileges, as in case of bar examinations and the standardizing of medical education, or the permission of high schools to offer courses for the normal training of teachers. In most of these States where normal schools have developed there has appeared a spirit of jealousy toward the rapidly growing universities. Thus through a combination of causes there are appearing many modifications of the original methods of inspection of high schools.

4. Types of Inspection Developed

In the North Central group of States we may find five distinct types or conditions of inspection as a result of the operation of the above-named forces: (1) State Department and university inspection working co-operatively as in the case of Missouri. (2) Two distinct systems of inspection, one carried on through the State Department and the other by the university, with more or less of duplication and some friction. This type is best typified by Wisconsin. (3) Inspection by the university only, as in the case of Michigan. California on the coast, and Texas in the South are of the same type. (4) Inspection under a representative State board, as in Minnesota, Indiana, and North Dakota. (5) Inspection through the State Department only, as in the cases of South Dakota and Montana. As for the rest, it may be said that there are appearing practically as many modifications, or combinations, of these five types as there are States remaining in the North and West. It is fair to predict that none of these types will continue long as they are. A careful study of the whole situation seems to lead to the conclusion that, as yet, no carefully developed plan, organized in the interests of the most efficient service by this agency for the improvement of instruction, has been formulated.

One of the recent and interesting types to develop in the field of inspection is that now in process of organization in Kansas. The situation in that State may be best epitomized by the following from a recent letter by Hon. E. T. Hackney, president of the State Board of Administration, a board created at the last session of the legislature: "We are trying to so organize our inspection work for the high schools, that we will not

duplicate inspection in any case. With that in view we have a secretary who has charge of the general field, and he can send a man from any of the institutions to make the inspection for him, usually selecting a man who is best fitted to do the inspection work and who resides closest to the school to be inspected. Generally the inspection work is done by one man in each school, and he takes enough time to cover a number of cities on one trip."

Here is an honest effort to secure two very important conditions of efficient inspection—a unified plan which eliminates duplication and conflict, and economy in its execution. The former is provided for by the simple device of a general secretary with power to direct inspection, the latter by utilizing men from different institutions to inspect the schools in their vicinities. The second may also become, in some degree, a unifying principle under tactful management.

Iowa has recently evolved a plan of inspection under a State Board of Secondary School Relations, appointed by the State Board of Education of that State. This would come under type (4), as given above, were it not for a recent development which establishes inspection also from the State Department.

Perhaps the most interesting recent enactment for the administration of inspectorial work is that provided for by an extraordinary session of the legislature for the State of Ohio, February, 1914. Section 7753 of this new school code reads as follows:

The superintendent of public instruction shall appoint two competent public high-school inspectors, who are connected with no college or university, two public high-school inspectors selected from the faculty staff of the college of education of Ohio State University, and one public high-school inspector from

each of the faculties of the Ohio normal colleges at Oxford and Athens and the Ohio normal schools at Kent and Bowling Green. The inspectors appointed by the superintendent of public instruction from the faculty staffs of the college of education, normal colleges, and normal schools shall be nominated by the presidents of their respective institutions. The superintendent of public instruction may also appoint, when necessary, competent instructors from any public or private school to inspect such high schools as the superintendent may direct.

The law goes on to define the duties of these inspectors. Those from the various institutions are to devote not more than half of their time to the work, while those appointed by the superintendent directly are to give all of their time to inspection. The inspectors are to meet on call at Columbus for conference with regard to standards to be established. They are to report all inspections of schools to the department and to each of the institutions named above. All final recommendations for the rating or approval of schools are to be based on a majority vote of the inspectors.

When it is remembered that the superintendent of public instruction in Ohio is not elected by popular vote, but appointed by the governor of the State, it will be seen that the above legislation marks a distinct step in the effort to satisfactorily solve the problem presented by this particular phase of the administration of instruction. If this remarkable new educational code had made provision for the appointment of the chief educational executive of the State by a State board of education, as discussed in chapter VII, it would have given practically an ideal solution to the problem. As it is, the departure thus taken in Ohio from the original methods of inspection in that State will be followed with great interest by all students of school administration.

There are various other departures from the special

types enumerated, which should be mentioned here. Iowa has recently provided, through the State Department, for an inspector of normal courses in high schools and inspectors of the smaller high schools. This now gives the State Department three inspectors, while the State Board employs an inspector and two assistants. The University of Minnesota provides for the inspection for accrediting private secondary schools and non-subsidized public high schools. Cincinnati University provides an inspector for accrediting secondary schools both in the city and outside. This inspector is also professor of secondary education and assistant superintendent of the city schools. In this latter capacity his supervision extends only to high schools, on which he reports to the superintendent. He also recommends teachers for appointment to positions in the high schools. As professor of secondary education he participates in the training of teachers of secondary grade. Illinois has recently provided an assistant to the superintendent of public instruction, whose special function is announced as the standardizing of high schools, with special reference to the execution of the new free-tuition law and the certificating law, both of which were enacted in 1913. Heretofore, for the past twenty-five years, all inspection and standardizing in the State have been done through the university. The University of Chicago has a system of affiliated schools whose relationship is determined by inspection. This list is not confined to the State of Illinois.

5. Work of the General Education Board in the South

In the Southern group of States the General Education Board in most cases pays the expenses of inspection. The States included in this group are Virginia, West Vir-

ginia, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana (until recently), Tennessee, Kentucky, and Arkansas. In all cases, except Arkansas and Louisiana, the inspector is attached to the department of education of the university and is paid through that institution. In the two States excepted, the office is attached to the State Department.

Under this arrangement in all the States of the South the inspector co-operates with the State Department, making regular reports to that department as a basis for meeting other needs for standardization in each particular State. In all but the two named above, the inspector is also a lecturer in the department of secondary education in the State University. Thus, a complete uniform and co-operative plan is provided without duplication or friction.

Since this work of inspecting and lecturing on secondary education under the General Education Board began in 1905, \$12,000,000 has been expended in new high-school buildings, and there has been an increase of \$2,500,000 in the annual income of high schools. The number of public high schools has increased from 1,032 in 1900 to 2,194 in 1910; the number of teachers from 2,648 to 6,482; and the number of pupils from 62,289 to 137,469.¹

The exceptional case among the above-named group of States where two inspectors are employed, the second one being for the State Department, is Tennessee; but in this case the two co-operate most harmoniously. Texas, as has been previously noted, has only university inspection at present and is independent of the General Education Board.

¹ The author is indebted to Professor J. S. Stewart of Athens, Georgia, for the information concerning southern high-school inspection.

6. Associations of Colleges and Secondary Schools

Besides these various systems of State inspection of schools, there exist two organizations of colleges and secondary schools, including respectively the North Central States and the Southern States. These organizations are for co-operation among the States with special reference to the accrediting of schools for college entrance by certificate. The standards adopted necessarily vary somewhat from those of any one State. This is due to the fact that they must include all of the highest standards of all the States in the group. It is also intended thus to establish an ideal to which the weaker schools may aim to attain.

The inspection for these associations is done by the regular inspectors of the States, who have in charge the accrediting for university entrance. They report to all the inspectors in a body, and after the approval of these reports by the board of inspectors, a report is made to a representative body or commission on accredited relations. The advantage of such uniform accrediting falls chiefly to the secondary schools and to such higher institutions, within and without the territory included, as do not maintain accredited lists of their own. It has exerted a marked influence in raising the standards of efficiency in secondary-school work of the two sections included by these associations. There has also resulted a fine spirit of mutual understanding and co-operation among the colleges and secondary schools.

7. Some Conclusions

From this brief survey of the field of inspection it is easy to discern a condition of transition in which there

is at present no distinctly basic principle dominant. The very rapid development of three types of institutions in our State systems of education—high schools, normal schools, and universities—has brought about this state of confusion. Conditions widely at variance in different sections of the country have tended in no small degree to enhance the resulting turmoil among our educational forces. Had there been State universities from the beginning, and in all the States, the situation would be greatly simplified. So, likewise, would the non-political organization of all state departments of education or public instruction have greatly reduced the present complexity of conditions.

But, since conditions are as we find them, it behooves all who are sincerely and unselfishly concerned with the development and perfection of our system of public education to make a careful survey of the field and seek to evaluate the different forces which are now seemingly contending for recognition or mastery in this relatively new field of administrative responsibility. To enumerate again, these forces are: (1) State universities, which originated the practice of inspection for standardization, in order to be able to extend to high schools the boon of entrance by certificate instead of the entrance examination. (2) State departments upon which legislation has laid the duty, either directly or by implication, of standardizing high schools for granting of subsidies and other purposes. (3) State normal schools seeking to find their exact place in the general scheme of State education, from which they seem to have been detached temporarily. (4) Institutions on private foundations which, by reason of the traditions on which they were established, do not find it easy to recognize general State standards for college entrance.

Now, these are all worthy factors in our scheme for the general diffusion of intelligence and scholarly attainments. Each should, therefore, receive such sympathetic and broad-minded treatment as may be due *in the light of what may be found desirable and necessary to the highest efficiency of the public-school system of the State*. Certainly no such motive as a mean jealousy, or the desire for aggrandizement of a public office, or selfish interest in any kind of institution should be permitted to restrain or hinder such administrative organization as may be found to be best suited to the attainment of that efficiency.

Let us seek to examine further into the aims and principles involved in this undertaking. First of all, it is proposed, for diverse purposes, to standardize our high schools. Now, it is in the very nature of standardization to tend to bring about a static condition of any institution. Our school system is, and should always be, a growing organism. Its most marked characteristic should be its readiness of adjustability to the changing conditions and needs of society. In dealing with this matter of inspection, therefore, what conditions on the part of the inspecting staff of a State are most likely to operate in favor of continued growth and adjustability? Will routine work by officials from a State department or under a State board be most conducive to such growth? Or will there be a distinct advantage in favor of close contact on the State side with a State institution of learning? And if we are choosing a State institution, would it be preferably a normal school or a university, or does it make no difference either way?

However people may differ as to the possible evolution of the normal school, it must always be true that its most distinct function, in most cases, at least, will be the preparation of elementary-school teachers. On the other

hand, it will always, in the nature of things, be the primary function of the university to deal with the sources of knowledge and with the more complete organization of systems of science and philosophy. Which of these contacts is most likely to preserve in the inspector that attitude most favorable to the growth and adjustability of the schools he inspects?

Inspectors themselves everywhere shrink from the narrowing tendencies of their work when it is exclusively that of inspection. Any one of them would gladly turn from the work to accept a professorship in education. If we ask them why, they will tell us that the fundamental reason is the desire to escape from the inevitable fate of a formal, routine service. University inspection has everywhere been characterized chiefly by the constructiveness of its policy. The universities have sought, as best they might, to turn to the high schools, through the office of the inspector, all the forces of their influence available for that purpose toward the development of better high schools. They have most frequently led in the advocacy of a broader and more liberal programme of studies for the secondary stage of education.

A most common oversight of those who advocate a purely bureaucratic management of inspection is the tendency to take as standards those States where there is no State university. They overlook the fact that here is a great co-ordinate force in the field of State education which is not to be found in Massachusetts or New York; that the institution representing this force is inseparably bound up, in its interests, with high schools and normal schools; that the logical solution of the problem is, therefore, in a State board, through which these different forces and State supervision, duly co-ordinated, may develop harmoniously in all their interrelationships, as

has already been pointed out in the chapters on Boards of Education and Supervision.

The recent development of inspection in the South indicates that there has been in the minds of those who have organized it a clear recognition of a distinct advantage in having university co-operation in this work. A similar attitude is noted in the recent changes in Iowa, Kansas, and Ohio, although not so distinct as in the Southern adjustment.

It would be unfortunate for both high-school and university education, if a day should come when States should undertake to determine all standards of inter-relationship between public secondary schools, normal schools, and universities without co-operation among these institutions and the consequent free and ready transfer of the vitalizing principles of growth. Such a result would seem inevitably to lead to a state of rigid formalism in education on a plane of mediocrity such as no nation or age has ever yet witnessed.

In his study of "Admission to College by Certificate," Professor Joseph L. Henderson, visitor of schools for the University of Texas, has summed up the matter fairly when he advocates that the work of visitation and classification of schools be conducted by State universities in all States where this has long been the practice.

In some situations he would favor a control shared by the State university and the State department. In such cases, the State department would give attention to the enforcement of all legal requirements such as affect physical conditions, or the status of different types of schools to be organized. This would leave the determination of scholastic standards mainly to the universities.

In cases where boards are in control, he holds that universities should assist in maintaining such standards

as are necessary to the successful use of the certificating system of college entrance.

In larger district organization he sees also an advantage to the different States included in toning up their respective systems and giving a still higher standard for the stronger schools. He suggests the desirability even of a national system of standardizing through the National Association of State Universities.

He closes with these words: "No system of certification which does not regard the welfare of the schools and colleges alike and which does not bring them together in intimate co-operation for the upbuilding of the entire school system will meet the demands which gave rise to the fundamental idea of admission to college by certificate."¹

Probably no one has come nearer to stating a clear basis for adjustment in this new field of administrative effort. Given a State board with sufficient authority, and with clearly defined powers and duties covering this particular aspect of a State system of education, and it would seem possible to elaborate a scheme of co-operation which would work to the general advantage of all concerned. The treatments suggested by Professor Henderson for the different types presented by present State organizations would then help at least to point the way to effective solutions.

¹ See "Admission to College by Certificate," by Joseph L. Henderson, Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, 1912, especially pp. 168-9.

CHAPTER XV

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

One very vital phase of the administration of instruction and one directly related to the supervision of schools is the problem of securing normal attendance. Of what good is it that society maintain schools at such cost to all the people unless the ends for which they are established be attainable? And how can they be attainable if a considerable proportion of those who should avail themselves of the privileges of free schooling refuse or fail to attend? The fifth of those principles, on which schools are believed to be established and maintained as a public charge, reads as follows: "In order to insure the general effectiveness of such a system society must, by legal compulsion if necessary, see to it that parents keep their children in school long enough to enable them to get at least the minimum of knowledge, wisdom, and skill necessary to the highest good of the individual and the well-being of the State."¹

I. Causes Affecting Attendance at School

There are numerous causes which tend to affect attendance at school in almost any given community. The distance which pupils have to go, or obstructions, natural or artificial, may cause irregular attendance. Fre-

¹ See chapter V, p. 67.

quently in the outlying districts of cities homes are very much scattered. The relatively small population makes it difficult to adjust the distribution of buildings. Some families are sure to be left too far from the school to enable smaller children to attend with regularity. Sometimes there is a difficult barrier such as a dangerous railroad crossing. In the country, likewise, it frequently happens that distances are too great, or roads impassable on account of mud or a swollen stream.

For those having some distance to walk to school very rainy or severely cold weather is likely to affect the attendance. One of the most fruitful causes of absence, however, is sickness, or quarantine on account of contagious diseases. This cause operates in both city and country and presents a serious problem in many cases. The whole question of health calls for very careful supervision as directly affecting the instructional work of the schools.

Lack of proper clothing or books, and often lack of food among the very poor in cities, are other causes for absence or total non-attendance unless there is careful supervision, and provision made for the clothing, food, and books necessary. Closely allied to these causes is the support of large families on meagre incomes, which makes the work of the older children in the family a bread-and-butter necessity.

A dislike for school and indifference of parents as to the need of education have been found to be fruitful sources of absenteeism of pupils from the public schools both in city and in country. These causes, singly or in combination, frequently lead to more serious results than just absence from school. Here is to be found a fundamental cause for truancy, which soon becomes chronic and often leads to vagrancy or something worse. It

is here, chiefly, where parental schools and reformatories get their inmates.

In the rural districts absence of older pupils who should be in high school is due largely to the fact that often the high schools are not free to pupils from outside the districts by which they are established. The price of tuition then becomes the drawback and keeps a large percentage of this group out of school at a premature stage in their education. It will thus be seen that the problem of school attendance takes on many forms and calls for much careful supervision.

2. Legislation Affecting Attendance

In recent years the problem of irregular attendance has become a matter of such concern as to enlist the attention of State legislators very generally. According to the United States commissioner¹ there were, prior to 1900, over thirty States that had enacted laws for compulsory attendance. At first the legislation was not of a character calculated to be effective. More recently, however, a different type of legislation has come into use. All States in the North in 1910 required attendance through compulsory-attendance laws. Closely allied to this compulsory-attendance legislation is child-labor legislation. This also shows a marked advance, especially in the later forms of legislation which make the laws enacted much more effective. In 1911 alone important measures improving child-labor provisions were adopted in Colorado, Indiana, Michigan, Missouri, New Hampshire, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, and Wisconsin.²

¹ Com. of Education Report, 1911, vol. I, pp. 17-18.

² See U. S. Com. Report., *op. cit.*, pp. 104-5.

3. The Question of Free Transportation

States are also beginning to provide, through legislation, for the free transportation to and from school of children living beyond certain distances from the school centre. This is in order to overcome the inequality of the cost of education because of unequal distances. It is all a part of the movement toward consolidation of rural schools with the purpose, through co-operation, of getting better and larger educational facilities for the children of the country. Even in cities a similar provision has to be made. The following quotation taken from the report of Associate Superintendent Haaren, as given in the Annual Report of the City Superintendent of Schools of the City of New York for 1912,¹ indicates a situation existing in that city:

"It is, of course, a nice question to determine what duty devolves upon the city to furnish transportation to the children attending its schools, but there is no question that if such were not furnished, not only would there be a great decrease in the amount of money allowed by the State for the instruction of the children, and an increase in the difficulty of enforcing the compulsory education law, but a great decrease in the opportunity for education afforded the children, and a consequent loss to the city and State in intelligent citizenship." Here is a concise statement of the significance of the whole matter. In this instance it is an occasion for city legislation. Undoubtedly there is here presented a problem affecting a number of our larger cities. In most instances the portable schoolhouse furnishes a fairly good solution; but there are always some situations on the extreme borders, or where people live

¹ See p. 287 of the Fourteenth Annual Report.

scattered through a commercial district, in which there are not enough children in one place to render this arrangement an economical one.

Certainly it is true of high schools that there are frequently too few to bring out the normal attendance in a city. The cost of transportation in time and money gets to the point where it is too burdensome or where it outweighs interest in further education. This is a question in city management of schools which calls for a much more careful study and adjustment, in many instances, than it has yet received.

4. Free Text-Book Laws

In many of the States, especially in the northeastern groups, free text-book laws are in force. This eliminates the question of cost to families in this particular as a bar from attendance at school. In still other States the laws permit boards of education to provide books for "indigent children." This seems to be a survival of the idea of free schools for the poor. It can hardly be said to take the place of free text-books outright to all alike. When it comes to providing food and clothing, the problem is a different one. Some cities do provide free lunches for ill-fed children, and a number of cities provide lunches at actual cost. But the problem of clothing has to be handled usually through the co-operation of some one or more charitable organizations. In the city of New York out of about one third of the school children, this being the number examined by physicians in 1912, nearly ten thousand children were found to be suffering from malnutrition. While this subject belongs properly under a discussion of health, yet these figures give a glimpse of the importance of the question of proper feeding of children as related to their effective instruc-

tion. It is certainly a question as to how far compulsory-attendance laws may be enforced without making provision for feeding and for all other necessities that go along with that physical condition essential to vigorous mental growth.

There seems to be a decided misconception in some quarters as to the purpose and necessity of lightening the burden of education upon families by providing general school supplies, text-books, and tuition free, and at general public expense. Here and there may be heard the charge of paternalism, either muttered or loudly proclaimed, according to the type of objector. Let it be not forgotten, however, that these items fall far short of covering the cost to parents of large, or even moderately large, families of keeping their children in school. The problem of clothing alone, according to prevailing standards in most urban communities, is the cause of much anxious planning and economizing in many an honest citizen's home. There is little danger, under stringent attendance and child-labor laws, of any hurtful paternalism.

5. Free Tuition in High Schools

Legislation is not lacking in some States whereby free tuition in high schools is provided for all. Indeed, there is a recent tendency toward free high schools in a number of the States, especially in the North Central and mountain States. Many of the laws are as yet inadequate or faulty. For instance, here is a State where there is a constitutional limitation to the amount which may be levied for school purposes. In a considerable number of village districts, and especially in mining or manufacturing regions, the full levy is required, and more, to support anything like adequate elementary

schools. In such a State, in order to make a free-tuition law constitutionally valid, it is necessary to limit what a district may pay for such purposes to "funds not otherwise appropriated." In such cases, often the most needy, it is impossible for the non-high-school district to pay any tuition.

California meets this in a most effective way. All non-high-school territory in a county is taxed by the county supervisors to the amount necessary to pay all tuition accounts incurred by the attendance of pupils in this territory upon near-by high schools. The tuition in this case, as it should always be, is the actual per-capita cost of operating the school attended, including in the estimate interest on the money invested in the school plant.

6. Absence from School as a Factor in Retardation and Elimination

There is no doubt but that absence from school, whatever the cause, is a strong factor in the retardation and ultimate elimination of pupils from their classes. Doctor Leonard P. Ayres finds in irregular attendance one of the important causes of retardation. He estimates that less than three fourths of the children in our cities continue in attendance as much as three fourths of the year. "Irregular attendance," he concludes, "is accompanied by a low percentage of promotions. Low percentage of promotions is a potent factor in bringing about retardation. Retardation results in elimination."¹

Doctor C. H. Keyes, in his study of progress through the grades of city schools,² found that repetition of

¹ "Laggards in Our Schools," Leonard P. Ayres. Charities Publication Committee, New York, 1909, chap. XII.

² "Progress through the Grades of City Schools," C. H. Keyes, "Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education," 1911.

courses is directly related to absence from school. Out of 1,797 cases absent 0-9 days were found only 14 per cent of repeaters; out of 231 cases absent 20-29 days, 40 per cent; while 209 cases absent 50 days or over furnished 73 per cent. He also found that home environment had a very direct bearing on progress; also that changing schools was responsible for very many cases of repetitions. On the latter point he says: "Changing schools during the year about doubles the probability that a pupil will repeat the work of the year in question."

Superintendent Maxwell, of New York City, in his annual report for 1912,¹ calls attention to the fact that the chances for promotion not only increase as the period of attendance increases, but that the chances are very much greater. He concludes "that there is no more dominant factor in promotion than regularity of attendance."

7. The Truancy Problem.

The truancy problem has been and still is a persistent one. The care of this type of delinquency is not only expensive but it leads to so many unwholesome after effects when the health of the social organism is considered. Because of its productiveness of evil, it is desirable that every possible means be utilized for its reduction to the minimum in our public schools.

Among the instrumentalities that have been devised for the purpose of counteracting or overcoming truancy may be mentioned the following: 1. Special or ungraded classes. 2. Courses strongly industrial, such as pre-vocational courses for boys. 3. Transfer to rural environment for agricultural and dairying pursuits along with academic training. 4. Parental schools organized in the

¹ *Op. cit.*, p. 86.

city. 5. Organizations on the "Boyville" or "George, Jr., Republic" basis, in which the organization of boys looks after the individual and administers all necessary correction. Such organizations are easiest to operate where the boys are segregated at least into special classes.

Judging from such experiments as have thus far been made, it seems likely that much of this evil would be eliminated by the establishment of the intermediate school on a departmental basis (see chapter XVII) and the general introduction of a larger amount of industrial work above the sixth grade. If, added to this, there could be more attention given to the organization of all activities of the school on a "community-life" basis, it seems likely that the major part of this evil would become extinct by natural processes. And as for any remnant that might persist, a careful attention to physical or mental defects, or to the counteracting of home conditions extremely abnormal, should cause a practically complete disappearance of the defect.

The attendance department of the Oakland, Cal., schools, in its report for 1911-12, puts special emphasis on inadequate home conditions as a cause of truancy and non-attendance. The parental home is there recommended as a remedy.

Superintendent Maxwell, of New York City, finds that a very fruitful cause of truancy is in "the issuance of employment certificates to boys and girls who have not secured employment."¹ He recommends as a remedy that school records, on the basis of which alone certificates can be issued, be withheld until a more advanced grade is reached and until evidence is produced from the prospective employer that the pupil will be employed if the certificate is granted.

¹ *Op. cit.*, p. 241.

We are told that 17 per cent of city school systems make provision for morally exceptional children.¹ These provisions are in the form of (1) classes for the delinquent, incorrigible, and refractory, or (2) parental and residential schools. The first largely predominates.

8. Plans for Supervision of Attendance

A very effective organization for a medium-sized city for taking care of this problem of attendance in its various aspects is that of the city of Newark, N. J. This is a city of about three hundred and sixty thousand population. The head of the attendance department is Supervisor Charles A. MacCall, who has been in this service for about eleven years. He is assisted by a number of attendance officers sufficient to look after each district of the city promptly and thoroughly. These officers are invested with authority to enforce the compulsory-attendance and child-labor laws. There is a complete system of reports. The attendance department co-operates with (a) teachers and principals, (b) parents, (c) the medical inspector, (d) the parental school (not under the board of education), (e) the juvenile court. It seeks the co-operation of employers of children and also brings them to account for any violation of the child-labor laws for which they are responsible. The department also seeks to find ways and means for providing clothing where the lack of it keeps children from school. This is done through charitable organizations and through the aid of philanthropic citizens of means. The city is providing two buildings, one on each side of the city, especially planned and equipped with proper facilities for the rational training of truants and other delinquents.

¹ Bulletin, 1911, No. 14, U. S. Bureau of Education. "Provision for Exceptional Children in Public Schools," p. 33.

In dealing with these classes the officials are actuated fundamentally by the idea that the work is one of salvage to society of efficient, law-abiding members rather than simply to protect society for the time being by a forced segregation and isolation of those morally defective. Through the activity of this department for the year 1910-11, 24,764 pupils were returned to public schools and 2,705 pupils were returned to parochial and private schools.

As regards the child-labor law of New Jersey under which the attendance supervisor was working, Mr. MacCall expresses the significant opinion that too much stress is laid upon the age qualification and too little upon the educational and physical qualifications.¹

Here we have reviewed in a brief way one of the most vitally important departments of supervision having to do with effective instruction in our schools. The following words from Professor Thorndike serve well for a conclusion to this chapter:² "Thus to release people more and more from ordinary labor when they are young and protect them by proper early training from disease, ignorance, waste, misery, and baseness is for the general good. Of the lifetime one has to live for the world, a large portion—say from eighteen to twenty-four years, according to the individual's nature—is best spent in activities chosen for their value in making his whole life finer and more serviceable, irrespective of their immediate money price. The community that bravely insists on protecting the young against being used up in helping the community get a living soon finds itself getting a better living, and other things of much more worth."

¹ See 55th Annual Report of the Board of Education, Newark, N. J., 1910-11, pp. 206-211.

² "Education," E. L. Thorndike, Macmillan, 1912, pp. 236-8.

CHAPTER XVI

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND HEALTH

1. The Principle Involved

The fourth principle by which the efficiency of our educational system may be tested is:¹ "The situation demands the most economic treatment of the problem of education, financially, in the matter of time, *and also in health conditions*, that is consistent with its most effective administration." Society is rapidly learning that a wise economy in social organization demands a maximum of conservation of individual life and health, with the maximum of salvage possible from those who are physically defective. The minimum attainment sought with the latter group is to render each individual honestly self-sustaining. Such a result means more than that to the individual. It carries with it the consciousness of independence, a feeling closely related to that of self-respect.

2. Relation of Health to Attendance and Instruction

Attention has already been called to the relation which health bears to attendance at school. No less significant is its relation to the successful instruction of those who remain at school. It has long been known that certain chronic pathological conditions in children tend

¹ See p. 75, chapter V.

to nullify the effects of instruction even under circumstances otherwise most favorable. How can the child whose head is racked with pain because of decaying teeth, or whose breathing is impaired by adenoids or catarrh, or whose aching head throbs because of strain upon eyes that are out of focus be expected to get any satisfactory results from study?

On the point of attendance Doctor A. H. Hogarth says:¹ "Systematic medical inspection will eventually lead to an increased attendance of children at school. The report of the interdepartmental committee on medical inspection shows that the various medical officers, who have already acted on behalf of the local education authorities, have done much toward improving the attendance of the children at school, and have frequently prevented unnecessary school closure, in cases of outbreaks of epidemic diseases." Likewise Doctor Gulick and Doctor Ayres, in their collaborated work on medical inspection of schools, say:² "We are beginning to find out that many of our backward pupils are backward purely and simply because, through physical defects, they are unable to handle the work of the school programme. What these defects are and the causes that lie behind them are things that we must know. If we do not know them we must find them out and guard against them. Education without health is useless." In his report for 1910-11, Doctor George J. Holmes, supervisor of medical inspection for the city of Newark, N. J., shows a decrease in days lost by quarantine of 40,000 as compared with the previous year.

¹ "Medical Inspection of Schools," A. H. Hogarth, London, Henry Frowde, Oxford Univ. Press, 1909, p. 66.

² "Medical Inspection of Schools," Luther G. Gulick, M.D., and Leonard P. Ayres. New York Charities Pub. Com., 1908, p. 16.

3. Health Supervision Demanded as Result of Neglect

A knowledge of the need of spontaneous play out-of-doors, of vigorous physical exercise in field and gymnasium as an offset to the evil influences of an indoor, sedentary life, is as old, at least, as our knowledge of the literature of the ancient Greeks. In our anxiety to accomplish great results in intellectual advancement we have shortened the hours for such exercise in our schools; and because of the false economy of a grossly material age we have denied to the schools the necessary open-air space and the appliances for out-of-door stimulation of the physical individual. It is, indeed, high time that health, hygiene, and playground evangelists should call attention vigorously to this neglect and the results it is bringing upon us.

4. Medical Inspection the First Need

No scheme for education is complete to-day which does not, at least, undertake to make provision for these conserving factors among the forces of the schools. And what is involved in such a provision? First of all, skilled medical inspection under the supervision of a man or woman who is not only a trained physician but also understands the principles of physical education. Such a supervisor must have under his direction enough assistants to enable him to cover the field of his office thoroughly.

This will involve more than medical inspectors. Those who look after the physical education directly should be subject to the medical inspector's direction in so far as is necessary in order to carry out the prescriptions made

for corrective exercises for those having defects to be overcome or cured. There will also be needed trained nurses. These will aid at the free clinics which will be conducted as a result of such defects as decaying teeth, adenoids, and other remediable conditions. They will also follow up recommendations made to parents by visits, in order to make plain to those who do not understand the necessity and importance of such treatment as has been recommended.

5. The Psychological Clinic Next

Certainly not less important, though more difficult than the discovery and treatment of physical defects, are the detection and effective dealing with mental defects. This calls for the psychological clinic, conducted by one or more skilled specialists who know the tests and their application in determining whether the child is mentally normal, subnormal, or supernormal. The presence of such an expert or department in the school system will involve also the provision for special classes for the proper treatment of those found to be abnormal, with teachers especially qualified to apply the educational processes prescribed.

6. Medical Supervision of Games and Sports Required

Either this organization of the health department of the schools or else the municipal health officer will look carefully after the first appearance of contagious or infectious diseases among pupils and will promptly take the steps necessary for their eradication. The department of physical education, in co-operation with the health department of the schools, will closely supervise the games and sports of pupils or students in order (a)

to see that special cases are getting the particular treatment called for; and (b) in order to forbid a form of exercise that is too excessive on the part of those who are suffering from such defects as impeded breathing, heart weakness, or malnutrition.

7. Emphasis Should Be Placed on Hygienic Conditions

To be most efficient, emphasis will be placed on prophylactic treatment; that is, the health department will seek to prevent disease by strict attention to hygienic conditions and by cultivating respect for the laws of health. The water-supply and drinking facilities, dust-free schoolrooms, hygienic seating will become important elements in the work of this department. Every county system, city, normal school, college or university has need of such a department, thoroughly organized and equipped for good, telling service. The city high school of twelve hundred or more pupils should have its resident physician in charge of all such work. The university with its larger group of students should have a strong department, calculated to conserve the health of the entire student body to the highest degree possible. The best knowledge and skill of men and women trained for such work should be available here, representing the last word in applied science along all these lines.

8. Specially Trained Experts Needed

In order to get those properly prepared for such service, States should offer university courses with special inducements for men and women to prepare themselves to meet the standards of knowledge and skill demanded. There will need also to be a liberal policy as to salaries

to be paid such experts if anything like the ability that the situation demands is to be available for this field. It is useless to expect those who can readily command liberal incomes from ordinary practice to devote their time to this work in the schools for a pittance. When we consider the interests involved, the lives at stake, the possible retardations of children, the waste in the schools because of neglect of health conditions, the progress being made seems too slow, the social consciousness awakens all too tardily.

The facts show, however, that educational growth in this respect has been very rapid. The first school system to give any attention to medical inspection was San Antonio, Tex., in 1890. This came because of an epidemic of smallpox, and was confined to the prevention of such outbreaks. It was Boston, in 1894, that first undertook anything like a complete organization of this work. According to the reports made by the Russell Sage Foundation in 1911, or fifteen years after the initiation of the work in Boston, out of 1,038 cities reporting there were 443 which had medical inspection of schools. Out of this number 337 reported the administration of the inspection to be under the board of education and 106 by the city board of health.

9. Important Recommendations of American Medical Association

The American Medical Association, in a report of its committee on the medical inspection of schools, recommends two divisions of inspection as advisable: (1) The field of educational hygiene under boards of education. (2) Care and control of contagious and infectious diseases under boards of health. The purposes of the work of educational hygiene under boards of education were

outlined in full by this committee. They seem to be so complete and excellent that they are here quoted in full:¹

PURPOSES OF THE WORK

1. The establishment of biennial, annual, and, when necessary, more frequent skilled physical and developmental examinations of pupils and students by a staff of experts. The establishment of initial examination of pupils by the teaching force of the schools, as far as the teaching force is qualified, prior to the skilled examinations by experts.

2. By effective action, based on the data of these examinations, to secure (a) the correction of physical anomalies and thus remove the growth barriers of children and youths, and (b) whenever possible and practicable, to adjust educational activities to meet the requirements of physical and mental health, growth, and development, and thus establish a special field of education for the maintenance of continuous health and development supervision of pupils and students.

3. To maintain a scientific and systematic study of mental retardation and mental deviation of pupils and students by skilled examination, and, whenever possible and practicable, by skilled training in special schools.

4. To establish skilled physical and health examinations of candidates for teachers' positions prior to their election to determine vital fitness for their work, and thereafter to maintain continuous supervision of health and efficiency to teachers as related to the work of the schools.

5. (a) To organize and supervise courses of technical instruction in hygiene for pupils, students, and teachers, in the means of conservation of physical and mental health, growth, and development; in the means of correction and prevention of defects, disease, and degeneracy; (b) whenever necessary for efficiency, to give practical and technical instruction to the teaching force of the schools, while engaged in teaching, in the initial physical and developmental examination of pupils and in the skilled physical and developmental and psychoclinical examination of exceptional pupils, abnormal and supernormal.

6. To establish and maintain well-equipped medical anthro-

¹ *Journal American Medical Association*, 57, 1751-7, Nov. 25, 1911.

pometric and psychoclinical laboratories in the public schools which shall afford opportunity and equipment:

(a) For sufficiently skilled medical, anthropometric and psychoclinical examination of exceptional pupils and of all pupils requiring special examination;

(b) For such technical training of teachers in the laboratory and experimental phases of educational work, connected with the physical and mental examination of pupils, in clinical psychology and in experimental pedagogy as is essential for the intelligent handling of pupils;

(c) For essential work in hygiene and sanitation.

7. To exercise expert sanitary supervision in the planning and maintenance of school buildings and grounds.

8. To bring about the establishment of dental and medical clinics for pupils whose parents are financially unable to provide essential medical and dental aid.

9. Whenever possible and practicable, to co-operate with State, county, and city health officers in the detection of and reporting of contagious diseases.

10. Each department of educational hygiene to constitute a bureau of practical investigation and research in educational hygiene, and as such to co-operate with the State bureaus of educational hygiene whose functions will or ought to be the organization and supervision of State-wide work and investigation in this special field of education—looking forward to the establishment also of a national bureau of educational hygiene.

An approximate grouping of pupils, based on the data of physical and developmental examinations which ought to follow the examination of pupils and students. 1. Those for whom medical and dental aid is essential. 2. Those whose respiratory or circulatory systems are defective or are poorly developed, for whom a larger amount of out-of-door life and physical activity is essential, or other modification of school activities necessary. 3. Those whose nervous systems are defective or poorly developed and who require an unusual amount of out-of-door life, physical activity, special care, and skilled training. 4. The segregation of pupils requiring an unusual amount of physical activity for possible mental growth—both sexes. 5. Segregation of pupils of truancy and criminal tendencies, or otherwise showing more or less degeneracy, and assignment to special schools with special training. 6. Segregation of men-

tally defective pupils and assignment to special schools. 7. The segregation of supernormal pupils and assignment to special schools. 8. As far as practicable, the grouping of pupils in accordance with development age.

In this programme, school nurses are assistants to the staff. Their field work is essentially as follows:

To assist members of the staff in the skilled examination of pupils and otherwise as assistance is needed; to assist teachers in making preliminary surveys of their pupils and in giving initial examinations, notifying parents of essential needs of pupils, etc.; visiting parents and in all justifiable ways establishing effective co-operation between home and school. Further, the function of the school nurse is that of the social educator in the field of hygiene. As such, the work of the school nurse is one of high order.

The staff of experts, the teaching force of the schools, and school nurses, working from the standpoint of education, form an educational corps to secure the effective co-operation of home, school, and school authorities in meeting the requirements of the physical and mental health and growth of pupils. When educational means fail, the law must remedy instances of neglect of health and growth of children.

Each department of educational hygiene should act, as far as practicable and consistent with the required established work, as a bureau of investigation and research.

The functions of departments of educational hygiene are two-fold: 1. Carrying out certain established work of the schools.

2. Investigation and research of problems of health and development, of clinical psychology and of experimental pedagogy.

Two classes of experts stand out as pre-eminently qualified for work in this special field of education: 1. The psychologist educator. An expert in child hygiene, in educational and clinical psychology, and in practical experimental pedagogy; skilled in physical and mental diagnosis of normal and abnormal growth and development and having a knowledge of elementary medicine; a thoroughly trained broad-gauged expert in education. 2. The skilled physician who has had sufficient training and acquaintance with educational work.

Your committee, therefore, joins in a recommendation already made by Doctor Terman, of the department of education of Leland Stanford University, essentially as follows: That steps

be taken to bring about a conference of representatives from the United States department (bureau) of education, the National Education Association, the American Medical Association, the American Institute of Homœopathy and other national medical associations and the Russell Sage Foundation for child welfare, which committee, after joint consideration of the problems involved, shall formulate and recommend alternative systems of educational hygiene which in time would be accepted as standard requirements in this special field of education.

10. Legislation Providing for Medical Inspection

The department of child hygiene of the Russell Sage Foundation has done and is doing a great work in helping to bring about better conditions for school children as regards health and general sanitary conditions. States are coming to realize the need of definite action in regard to these things. Each year legislation occurs somewhere placing emphasis on playgrounds, medical inspection, sanitary buildings—one and all of these. The sanitary building laws of Ohio and Indiana passed in 1911 are good illustrations.

Legislation providing for medical inspection according to statistics furnished by the Russell Sage Foundation¹ for 1912 was established in nineteen States and the District of Columbia. Of these, seven States have mandatory laws, ten permissive, and the other two States and District of Columbia have regulations effective with the same force as law. The following statement from the same source is a good description of the provisions such laws should contain: "Every such law should make provision for frequent inspections of children by duly qualified school physicians to detect and exclude cases of contagious disease. It should provide for examina-

¹ "A Comparative Study of Public-School Systems in the Forty-Eight States," 1912, p. 31.

tions of all the children by school doctors to detect any physical defects which may prevent the children from receiving the full benefit of their school work, or which may require that the work be modified to avoid injury to the child. It should empower school physicians to conduct examinations of teachers and janitors, and make regular inspections of buildings, premises, and drinking water, to insure their sanitary condition."

II. The Playground Movement

No less important as a conservator of the health and vigor of school children is the playground movement. There now exists in this country a Playground and Recreation Association of America. The chief aim of this organization is to act as a propaganda for more and better play and recreation facilities for both children and adults. At the 1911 meeting of this association it was reported that 22 cities, employing 643 workers, were actively engaged in playground work, and that in the 12 months preceding about \$3,000,000 was spent in 184 cities for the improvement and establishment of playgrounds.

Another indication of growth in the direction we are discussing is seen in recent legislation. In 1911 Indiana passed laws providing for public playgrounds, baths, and comfort stations in first-class cities. Kansas provided a tax for parks and public playgrounds in cities. Massachusetts established supervision of sports on school playgrounds. Michigan provided for physical training in normal schools and city districts; the formation of corporations for maintaining playgrounds; and permission for districts to maintain school gymnasiums. Minnesota provided for parks and playgrounds in cities. New Hampshire permitted town appropriations for public

playgrounds. Ohio made it possible for boards of education to secure playgrounds. Pennsylvania provided for boards of recreation in first-class cities. Rhode Island established public playgrounds in Providence. Wisconsin made provision for physical training in cities and in normal schools and training-schools for teachers; and for school boards in cities to maintain gymnasiums, playgrounds, baths, etc. Thus it appears that this country, following the example of leading European countries, is rapidly awakening to the needs of our situation along lines of public recreation and especially in our schools.

12. The School Should Supervise the Play

It will be seen that work so closely related to the instructional work of the schools—in fact, constituting a part of the instruction itself—will be much more effective, more completely co-operative when administered under boards of education than when under separate boards. Where it is designed, however, to combine recreation for school children with that provided for adults, it seems apparent that a separate management should be provided. The sentiment of those who have closely studied the subject seems to favor a distinct treatment of the problem for children and youth as a part of the work of the school. Such, indeed, has long been the attitude of colleges and universities.

CHAPTER XVII

THE CURRICULA OF THE SCHOOLS

I. Sequence in Education

All learning of the schools, of whatever grade, is related. It simply represents the sum total of race accomplishment in acquiring useful arts, in setting up institutions, and in organizing systems of thought with reference to various aspects of nature and of human life individually and in association. In this it constitutes a progression. Hence, practically all there is of sequence in the school processes is determined by the order of this progression. Briefly summarized, this sequence would run somewhat as follows:

- (1) The school arts, such as language, drawing, simple construction; forming habits of observation and of arranging and recording results of observation; numbering and classifying.
- (2) Simple thought processes, experimenting; learning how to study world, race, and national movements; extending language study to those of other races; learning how to interpret natural phenomena in terms of generalized formulas or principles; drawing, color work, and construction as applied to the arts of life.
- (3) Pushing out to some frontier of human knowledge; reorganizing thought systems in harmony with

the progress made; arranging and applying groups of principles in the carrying forward of all human projects, as in (*a*) agriculture, (*b*) commerce, (*c*) the mechanic arts, (*d*) jurisprudence, (*e*) medicine and surgery, (*f*) education and social betterment, (*g*) government, (*h*) religion; extending knowledge and mastery of the expressional arts.

Here we have given the basis for the three general groupings of an educational system, assuming all conditions normal and regular. In actual operation we find various limitations to this progression as related to individuals—limitations as to individual capacity, economic conditions, environment, or inclination. As a result, at each stage provision should doubtless be made for the acquisition, in a more intensive form, of some skill or knowledge, or both, which shall equip such handicapped individuals with the ability to sustain themselves without becoming a social charge or a social menace. This takes no account of pathological cases demanding special remedial treatment rather than the ordinary educative processes of the school. In her work with special classes in the city of Newark, N. J., the supervisor of this department finds that by the application of the Binet-Simon tests there are frequently left on her hands children for whom education can do practically nothing. Perhaps there is no better way than through the experience of the school for defectives to differentiate and segregate these pathological cases.

2. Interdependence of the Three Stages of Education

In these three successive stages of progression, representing the elementary, middle, and higher processes

of education, each higher step is dependent upon the ones below it, while often one of the chief stimuli for acquiring the earlier steps is found in those steps higher up. The whole system needs, therefore, to be so co-ordinated as to admit of the free action of all stimuli, whether acting from below upward or drawing from above upon those below. As the streams flow down from the mountains, spreading into the valleys and across the plains to nourish the vast and varied growths of a continent's vegetation, so, in a sense, should there flow down from the frontiers of human research into the hidden truths of nature and of human life streams of refreshing knowledge to quicken and transform all the arts and institutions of man into ever better and more highly perfected types.

3. Basis for Organization of Educational Institutions

Such a conception of education presupposes a scheme of organization for its administration such that provision shall be made for the dissemination and application of all useful learning among the out-of-school classes as well as to those who are of school age. How else are we to make any real progress in the fundamental arts and processes which underlie and vitalize all human interests? This modern way of viewing the educational situation gives quite a different significance to the work of our schools and colleges. Instead of following a tradition as we have been doing until now, we are beginning to look about us in order to discover, if possible, the most direct lines of relationship and contact of whatever we undertake to teach with the real, essential, well-rounded human life and action. Night schools, schools for special classes, extension courses, correspondence in-

struction, expert commissions, and advisory boards are some of the results already observable.

May we not justly say that it is the chief end and aim of public education thus to provide for the highest possible well-being of all classes of people of whatever calling or social status they may be, each in accordance with his ability to acquire and to use? It follows, then, that science and the results of scientific research, whether it be in regard to material things, life as manifested in nature generally or human life as it appears in man's social relations, should be capable of appropriation by the masses as far down as possible. In other words, we should begin as early as possible in the training of the young to turn over to them the fundamental truths in regard to all phenomena whether natural or social. To do this it becomes quite evident that all educational instrumentalities must essentially work in harmony, and that the organization of our school curricula must be such as to lead most directly and with a maximum economy of time to the ends sought.

What, then, should be the basis for organization into particular types of the various kinds of educational institutions needed in the accomplishment of the purposes and aims of an efficient system of popular education in a country like our own? This brings us to a difficult point at which, if we should err in our ultimate differentiation of types, we might, according to the opinions of some, bring about results disastrous to our cherished ideals of democracy. Chief among these ideals are those of equal opportunity to all and the efficiency of the individual in the social group. If we organize schools in types varying in accordance with the needs of the different industries and professions, shall we not bring about a social stratification with a condition far removed from

our idea of equality of opportunity? We frequently hear it said that the school should minister to the peculiar needs of the community which it serves. Do we mean by this that rural schools should be solely for those who are to practise the rural arts? or that city schools are solely for those interested in commerce, or the mechanic arts, or professional work, each varying in accordance with the extent to which any one or more of these conditions may prevail? Or should a cosmopolitan scheme of education be furnished alike to both country and city so as to admit of that free passing from one to the other according as ability or inclination on the part of the individual might seem to direct? Is not this what we really mean when we talk about equal opportunity?

4. Problem of Differentiation of Pupils' Work

But if we are correct in this latter inference, then there is something more to be provided for in our system of schools than merely to make it possible that each prepare according to ability or inclination. For how is the youth to know, or how are we to know, his peculiar tastes and capacities, in order that he may be directed along the lines of inclination or ability? It seems evident that somewhere in the scheme, not too early to be premature, yet not too late to catch him in school, there must be a way and the means for testing each individual at least in the light of what we know to be the fundamental requirements of each general field of human endeavor. We should probably never be able to differentiate successfully, in this respect, as among the various mechanic arts or the professions; but we surely might do so as between these larger general groups, or even between individuals of either group when

the training in skill and knowledge required is distinctly different in type.

Generally speaking, we may safely dismiss this process of differentiation to the period of adolescence, or to the second of the three periods previously suggested. This amounts to saying that in the elementary grades, up to and including the sixth, no attention need be given to inclination or preference so far as they may relate to any particular choice of an occupation. Indeed, there is abundance of work peculiarly adapted to this period which should be had by all in order that each may enter fairly and with equal preparedness upon the lines of work in which he is to seek to discover himself or be discovered by his teachers.

The vocationally selective courses offered in some of our high schools mark a certain progress along this line of differentiating pupils according to their respective abilities and inclinations as they may be found to be more or less clearly defined. But what are we to say in regard to the external forces expressed in social needs and quite as important in determining what the school shall undertake to teach? Here comes in the social survey, covering a careful review of social demands and occupations, as a basis for indicating the educational needs of a given community.

Recent experience in New York City in connection with the vocational guidance survey conducted by Miss Barrows is of interest in this connection. This survey was undertaken primarily as a means of determining what there was for children to do who, for economic reasons, must leave school as early as possible and go to work. The outcome seems to point definitely to a demand for vocational training rather than for an organized effort to aid such children in getting suitable

jobs. To express it in Miss Barrows's own words:¹ "What the children want is vocational training. The kernel of truth in this popular movement for vocational guidance is the need of vocational training for children. Vocational guidance should mean guidance for training, not guidance for jobs." Carefully conducted surveys of industrial and other social conditions of a community should, if properly interpreted, give much useful and definite information desirable as a means by which to determine what subjects and exercises a school should offer in order to become most directly effective in serving the social needs of the community to which it ministers. It should always be borne in mind, however, that if all are to be at their best in service it may be necessary for some, perhaps many, to prepare for lines of work scarcely represented at all in the community where they are being educated.

5. Organizing and Adapting Schools to Varying Needs

If, then, we are agreed that the truly democratic type of education is cosmopolitan, our questioning now turns to the manner in which best to organize this type so as to adapt it to the needs of the different situations to be found in a country so varied as to population and industries.

There are certain typical and generally recognized situations which will serve us here. These are (1) the rural schools, including the one-room country school and the schools of the numerous agricultural villages; (2) city schools; (3) colleges, universities, technological

¹ "Report of the Vocational Guidance Survey," by Alice P. Barrows, Bulletin no. 9, Public Education Association. City of New York, 1912, p. 14.

and professional schools; (4) schools for the defective classes, as those for the blind, deaf, and feeble-minded.

At no point in the system does it appear so difficult to secure the cosmopolitan school as in the case of the rural districts. In the old-time, one-teacher school it was quite possible, when the teacher knew the art of teaching, to teach the few subjects required very effectively. With the great increase in the number of things which we expect the schools to do, it has now become practically impossible for one teacher to handle all the work. At the same time, the schools are, in most instances, relatively very small. In fact, there are often too few pupils to enable the teacher to arouse enthusiasm in school work.

The only remedy for this situation seems to be in bringing the schools of several districts together for elementary training and then establishing at a central point in each group of these consolidated schools a high school. Such a group, for purposes of instruction, should constitute a unit for supervision. In this manner a complete and properly co-ordinated programme of studies and activities could be worked out and kept in effective operation. The principal of the central high school could readily assume this local supervisory function, while the county superintendent, operating under a county board of education, would have general supervision over all. The arrangement of such districting into convenient groups would be much better accomplished if left to the county board with the expert assistance of the county superintendent, as has been previously suggested.¹

¹ See chap. VII.

6. Conditions Needed for Rural Schools

The dominant note in such a scheme of education would naturally be found in rural rather than urban interests. At the same time, it should be possible for the pupil whose inclinations point to a business or professional career to find as good preparation available in the home district, as far as elementary and high-school training goes, as could be found in any city-school system. By such a plan the high school would be made as free to our country boys and girls as to their city cousins, a consummation now long overdue in most of the rural districts of America. An elementary training is a great blessing as far as it goes; but it attains fruition, so far as school training is concerned, only when followed at least by a high-school course. The former does little more than prepare one to become educated; the latter gives a good start in an actual education. Thus it is that the high school has become an inseparable part of our common-school system.

This whole problem is as much a social and economic one as it is educational. Much educational work must be done among farmers before ever any adequate provision can be made for modern rural schools, so as to make them in every way at least equal to those of the city, and with a natural environment far surpassing anything which the cities can provide. According to Foght¹ we are now "spending \$33.01 on the city child's education for every \$13.17 on the rural child's." In some Canadian provinces² the government offers subsidies as an inducement to districts to consolidate. Why would this not be a good thing for the States to do? Cer-

¹ H. W. Foght, "The American Rural School," 1911, Macmillan, p. 18.

² U. S. Com. Report, 1907, I, 238.

tainly, if we are ever to secure the development, in any efficient way, of agricultural education in our rural schools, we must first secure a more co-operative and compact organization, such as consolidation makes possible. And all this means a change in the social and economic outlook of the people of our rural communities.

The following paragraph taken from the report of the Michigan State commission on industrial and agricultural education¹ sets forth fairly the situation with reference to the necessity for widening the scope of education in the rural schools: "The one-room school has performed a large part of the education of the people in the past; but with the changed conditions in the country and improvements in all forms of industry, and especially in agriculture, such a school has become less and less able to meet the needs of the present generation in preparing it for life's duties. In these schools we find a very small amount of apparatus, small school-yards and only one instructor, and it is, therefore, practically impossible for the rural school to enter upon the field of vocational instruction. The most that it can possibly do is through the introduction of elementary forms of hand-work, domestic art, nature study, and the elements of agriculture, to develop a respect for vocation. All these subjects must be taught as incidental because of the absolute necessity of training the children in what may be called the regular or academic subjects, such training being designed to give them the power to gather thought from the printed page and to make such computations as are necessary in the everyday affairs of life. Of these things the rural school should give to every child a very definite possession.

¹ Michigan State Com. on Ind. and Agr. Education, Report. Lansing, 1910, pp. 28-29.

If the rural school does its elementary work well it may have served its purpose, but it cannot and will not fully meet the needs of the rural population."

Another matter which calls for serious consideration in organizing the instructional work of rural schools is how to make provision for some training for those young men, more advanced in years, who are early withdrawn from the schools to work on the farms. The establishment of free rural high schools for all will do much, of itself, toward solving this difficulty. There will still be found necessary, however, short courses for winter months, if not, also, night courses for such boys and young men. The one-room, one-teacher school cannot be expected to provide for this; but the consolidated schools, with the central high school for each group, could find a way to make provision for this very important class who are now to be found continuously out of school.

7. Town and City Organization

With the schools of the towns and cities the situation in some respects is much better. They are better equipped materially and the organization for purposes of instruction is more complete. The teachers are usually better prepared and the number employed is reasonably adequate. Frequently, however, there seems to be great waste in the supervisory forces. In many cases the men employed are not properly trained. They do not know how to go about the real work of supervision. In other cases they are kept too busy with mechanical or clerical duties, or with class teaching, to be able to devote any time to the essential work of the office.

In spite of such limitations the city school systems have made good progress in the organization of the materials of education. In their elementary and high

schools may usually be found a very broad and complete representation of subjects for study and various other exercises for school training, including music, drawing, and art work, physical education, the manual arts and household arts, and economics. The one thing lacking in the most marked degree is provision for training in real vocational lines. In order to supply this deficiency successfully it will probably be necessary to reconstruct the organization of the programme and the consequent distribution of pupils on some such basis as the six-four-four plan.

8. The Problem as It Appears in Colleges and Universities

In the case of colleges and universities may be noted a lack of differentiation between the two rather distinct functions which these institutions clearly represent in the field of education—training for professional service and training for research work on the frontiers of a particular department of learning. The one calls for strong teaching ability on the part of the instructor and for a certain segregated organization of those representing and imbibing in common the ideals of the profession which they would pursue. The other requires absolute fealty to a given, circumscribed field of learning, with all the equipment and scholarly traits of the specialist. It seems evident in these two cases that the organization of materials should differ somewhat even as the aim and the method of approach should differ. Further, there should be somewhere in the first group, or perhaps detached as a third line, a type of instructors and an organization of materials prepared to tone up and lead forward those who have passed from the university into the field of life's activities. By some such means there might be

carried to them new knowledge and fresh inspiration from the work going on at the frontiers of the learning process.

Certain it is that in these more advanced courses of training the curricula should be planned somewhat definitely. They should lead either to the acquisition of professional training sufficient to prepare the individual most effectively for civic usefulness and social service in his chosen line or to the field of research work. Under the former group should come the lawyer, the surgeon, the engineer, the agriculturist, the educator, the journalist, the expert in various business departments; under the latter, government experts studying new problems afield, and university professors working in libraries and laboratories and also afield, in all the various departments of human interests and human needs that are open to such betterment as the discovery of new knowledge, new principles, or new combinations of physical forces may bring.

9. Requirements in the Case of Defectives

The organization for the training of defectives presents a special field, requires a treatment pathological rather than normal. There are those morally defective to be trained to habits of right living and right social attitudes. Experience seems to show that training to some useful service more in the order of trades furnishes the best basis for the inculcation of sound principles and the formation of such habits as are calculated to restore this unsocial element.

The physically defective who require a special training are chiefly those who are deaf, blind, or feeble-minded. For each of these classes, in order to render them capable of caring for themselves, even partially, there is neces-

sary that form of education which shall most nearly overcome or furnish a substitute for that which is lacking. Such training requires the segregation of these classes in schools specially equipped and with teachers specially trained and peculiarly fitted for doing this work.

10. Programme of the Elementary School

But what as to the content of the programme of studies? What materials should be drawn from nature and what from history, and in what order? In the elementary school the basis for training in the school arts should come, first of all, from local historical materials, such as home life and customs; industries, with something of primitive types to aid in developing a historical perspective; local institutions and the organization of society for purposes of government and for public service. Then there should be much drawn from literature, including biographies, and from history told in story form or as very simple narrative. Art should also contribute its historical side.

Next there should be liberal studies from nature, beginning, perhaps, with familiar animals and plants, together with other and general aspects of nature. Along with the development of the expressional arts, especial care should be taken in the training of the observational powers and the formation of habits of accuracy in recording or organizing results of observations.

11. Programme of the High School

As this work advances into the high-school grades its scope should gradually enlarge and the treatment intensify. Laboratory accessories should come more and more into use in the nature work; while, on the histori-

cal side, libraries, cabinets, charts, and maps should become important features as the work progresses. Foreign language should be introduced, especially for those looking to either professional careers or to advanced study and research. In the former cases modern language, or mathematics, or drawing and art work, or shop work should equip the individual with whatever accessory arts may be prerequisites to entering upon a particular profession. In the latter, similar training should be had, after thoughtful determination, in order to fit one for the various lines of research which a given field may seem to demand.

12. The Weakness of the Old Order

The above characterization of the content of the programme applies chiefly to the standard recognized activities of the schools as they are now organized. We have already laid down the principle that education, through the public schools as a means, is for the purpose of training individuals for social efficiency and social betterment. In order to accomplish this aim the school should instruct children and youth (*a*) in the formation of right habits; (*b*) in acquiring the skill necessary for rendering some service needed by society and essential to the permanent well-being and efficiency of the individual; (*c*) in the processes and experiences necessary for the cultivation of the mind both in the acquisition of useful knowledge and in the ability to think clearly; (*d*) in establishing the habit and tendency to right conduct; (*e*) in the principles of good citizenship.

There is a generally prevalent feeling among educational people, and, indeed, among thoughtful people of all classes, that in order to attain these ends we are greatly in need of a reorganization of the materials of education

as usually expressed in the programme of studies of the elementary and secondary schools. Probably no phrase comes nearer to expressing what is generally felt to be lacking than that a motive is needed. We try to do too much in the abstract. We conjure up materials from any and all sources, materials entirely unrelated in any organic sense to the lives of children and youth, in order to train in the school arts. Most of the content material presented is from books, without much thought as to its motivation or as to whether or not the pupils have any basis for interpreting it, or, in other words, are able to assimilate it in such a way as really to contribute anything toward the real process of informing their minds. Various ways and means of supplying what is thus felt to be lacking have been tried. Out of all the resulting experiences thus far seems to come the evidence that, where pupils are provided with something to *do* that definitely relates itself to the every-day interests of life, motive for their academic work is not lacking. Especially is this true where the teachers of these academic subjects present them in such a way as to indicate their relationship to human accomplishments along lines of action similar to those in which the pupils are engaged.

All of this is in accord with the theory of psychologists as applied to the learning process. "No experience is of importance unless it is organized," says Royce, in his "Outlines of Psychology."¹ But experiences, to be organized, need to be connected in some orderly manner or by means of common threads of interest; and the process of such organization depends, in childhood and youth, chiefly on action as a basis. This same general idea is pretty definitely expressed by

¹ Royce, Josiah, "Outlines of Psychology," p. 351.

Dewey in his "Moral Principles in Education,"¹ in a discussion of the manner in which the power of judgment is cultivated. "Acquiring information," he says, "can never develop the power of judgment. . . . The child cannot get power of judgment excepting as he is continually exercised in forming and testing judgments. He must have an opportunity to select for himself, and to attempt to put his selections into execution, that he may submit them to the final test, that of action."

Again the same writer, in discussing the elementary curriculum, expresses the need of definite lines of action in a still more emphatic way when he says:² "That the elementary curriculum is overloaded is a common complaint. The only alternative to a reactionary return to the educational traditions of the past lies in working out the intellectual possibilities resident in the various arts, crafts, and occupations, and reorganizing the curriculum accordingly. Here, more than elsewhere, are found the means by which the blind and routine experience of the race may be transformed into illuminated and emancipated experiment."

The fine discriminations in motor activities which result from the acquisition of skill in doing are first mental before they become automatic and habitual. It is here, doubtless, that are gained some of the most important points in the process of organizing our experiences into those varied but closely related elements which we have in mind when we refer to our knowledge in regard to any of the ordinary relations in life, whether natural or institutional. Thorndike³ thus explains this

¹ Dewey, John, "Moral Principles in Education," Riverside Educational Monograph, p. 55.

² Dewey, John, "How to Think," p. 169.

³ Thorndike, E. L., "Elements of Psychology," p. 300.

process of the cultivation of skill through motor activity: "A skilled movement may commonly be divided into the *coarser* adjustments with which it starts and the *finer* adjustments which come into play in response to the guiding sensations. . . . Motor skill is thus by no means a matter of delicacy of movement alone. It implies also the capacity to receive and attend to the fine differences in sensations which are the guides to the finer adjustments, and, most important of all, the capacity to make connections between sensations and movements, to eliminate the unnecessary and undesirable movements."

13. The Element Most Needed Is an Industrial "Core"

The trouble, in other words, with the school curriculum is not so much that it is overloaded, as Dewey would express it, as that there is lacking a sufficiently constant and extensive basis for the organization, in connection with motor processes, of the fundamental experiences undertaken to be set up in the minds of children and youth from lessons and problems that are only abstractions, without any basic, concrete relation in experience. And it is just this lack which an industrial *core* or *basis* to all this period of training would supply.

All educational experience thus far tends to corroborate this point of view, and that, too, with emphasis. Witness the results obtained in the education of the negro at Hampton and Tuskegee; or by the introduction of manual arts into city high schools and agriculture into rural high schools; or by the George, Jr., Republic and the various industrial schools for boys and girls who have started wrong or sought to evade the lessons of the strictly academic schools. It is but natural

that the query often arises: Why not make this work prophylactic instead of corrective?

Primarily, the purpose of the introduction of this industrial work should be educational; but it need be none the less practical on that account. And, when we come to the various "turnout" points in the process of education, there might well be an intensification of the industrial or "trade" aspect of this training. In this respect Superintendent Wirt has set up an excellent example in the schools at Gary, Ind. Under entirely different conditions a similar situation is being evolved in many of our larger cities. The Los Angeles schools are a fine illustration. The organization of various types of prevocational classes and schools is illustrative of the same movement.

14. Specialization and Adjustability

Aside from the character of the industrial work to be offered there can be little room for any suggestion, even, of specialization before about the middle of the high-school period. Here the inclinations, capabilities, and limitations of the individual pupil should have become sufficiently apparent to make possible a pretty definite choice of the line of work to be pursued and emphasized in the further training which may seem practicable or desirable, both from the point of view of the individual and that of society. In making this choice, however, little if anything else should weigh other than the physical, mental, and moral capabilities of the individual.

Here, again, we are confronted by the problem of wisely differentiating the materials of education, as represented in the curriculum, so as to offer lines of training to

correspond to the differentiations among pupils and also in our social conditions and needs. It seems evident enough, in spite of the contentions of those who still insist that the traditional curriculum is best, that there must be this adjustment of materials to the varying educational needs of the individual and society. For while it is true that the particular applications of knowledge and skill to the affairs of life to-day may give place in the next generation to an entirely different situation, calling for new knowledge and new skill, yet the matter of interest as a motive, a vitalizing principle in the conventionalized processes of the school, calls for this definite relationship to the things that now are.

This puts a special emphasis upon the necessity of adjustability on the part of the individual. Not the least of the problems of modern education is that of finding the way by which to enable the individual to project himself through the entire active period of life without the breakdown that is likely to come with inability to adjust readily to the changing conditions of life. As we seek to promote health, and thereby to lengthen a man's expectancy, we must also provide for this other contingency of adjustability in service, else it were better not to extend the life period. The problem seems to point definitely to the need of those elements in the training of the school which will develop most freely the power of initiative, constructive power, ideals.

It seems probable that, when the final sifting and weighing of the values in the curriculum are accomplished, if such a consummation is possible, there may remain elements which all alike must have, in order to be properly prepared for needed adjustments. If such there be, then these will become the constant elements

of all our curricula. All other types of material for the training of the schools will then need to be arranged, sequentially and in accordance with time requirements, either in separate and definite curricula or in larger, variable groups, from which the individual may elect according to the purposes and needs of his prospective career in life. It is interesting to note the progress that is being made in experiments for determining somewhat definitely the time factor in covering the traditional courses of the elementary programme. Certainly there is great need for the establishment of a reliable time measure of the pupils' effort in order to achieve the purposes of the teaching and exercises here set up. This is not to mean that we should shorten the period preceding the university training of an individual, but that we may be able to bring him to it better informed and more skilful.

15. Knowledge Lacking of Educational Values

There is also much that remains to be demonstrated, as regards the actual values inherent in the different subjects taught, expressed in terms of actual results perceivable in the education of the individual. Just at present there are lines of work about which pretty good guesses may be made. In other directions varied and conflicting opinions are rife. Perhaps no greater single service could be rendered to education at this stage than to make it possible to state, with some degree of definiteness, the educational values of the chief groups of materials now demanding attention in the schools.

16. The Demand Is for Greater Flexibility of the Curriculum

In his report on the educational aspects of the public-school system of New York City,¹ referring to the curriculum of the elementary schools, Dr. Frank M. McMurry calls attention to the need of greater flexibility. This view is corroborated by Dr. Paul H. Hanus in discussing editorially the "Report as a Whole." Such an expression, and from such sources, should exercise a profound influence on the future development of the elementary-school programme. The feeling is altogether too common that effective administration calls for absolute uniformity in the curricula for all schools of a system, regardless of local conditions.

In the programme of the high school we have recourse to wide election in order to meet this situation. In some instances, as in Los Angeles, Cal., the flexibility is further increased by differentiating the high schools. Pupils desiring to emphasize some particular element in their high-school education select the high school which stresses this line of work. This makes the high school somewhat less readily accessible to the pupil; but it enables a particular school to go further in a certain line than where the schools are all equally composite, as in Saint Louis. It is also a more economical way when it comes to the expensive equipment needed for the various technical courses.

Such a plan of differentiation could hardly be operated so readily in elementary schools. But certainly it is

¹ Report of Committee on School Inquiry on Educational Aspects of the Public School System, part II, "Elementary Schools," Frank M. McMurry. City of New York, 1911-12.

practicable to allow considerable latitude in stressing certain elements in the general programme, in changing the actual materials used as well as the presentation, so as to meet peculiar social needs and conditions in different parts of a large system. Then there is also opportunity in such a plan for a larger degree of initiative on the part of both teachers and principal.

17. The Principle of Economy Involved

This brings us to the consideration, finally, of the principle of economy involved in constructing the curricula of our schools. Although the mass of materials seemingly requiring attention in any complete scheme for the training of youth has increased rapidly in volume during the past quarter of a century, yet no very successful attempt has as yet been made by the schools generally to reorganize this mass of materials into such simple unities as shall bring it within the scope of the period of training available to the average pupil.

In a similar sense the demand for a more highly specialized and varied ability in the teaching force is noticeable, with a corresponding increase in the equipment called for. All these changes involve a heavy increase in the educational budget. If that public sentiment which ever stands behind the taxing powers of our government is to acquiesce in all this growth in cost it will only be by making apparent the relative importance, the actual civic and industrial need, of what the schools propose to do. But more important than financial economy, essential as this may be, is that economy of time to be sought, through a better arrangement of sequences, in order to prepare the individual, without loss, for efficient service.

All this goes to demonstrate the fact that all friends

of true educational progress are bound to count carefully the various elements of cost involved and to eliminate every wasteful factor in the administration of instruction. In other words, it is the business of those of us who are specialists in this field of education to see to it that society actually gets from the schools, in a genuinely economic sense, those values for which public education is instituted and maintained.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE TEACHER

Here, after seventeen chapters, we approach the heart of the whole matter. Imagine a line at which are to be found, on the one side, all those who are to be taught; on the other side, all those who are to teach. Here are to be brought, in proper order, all materials of education. The personality of the teacher, *en rapport* with that of the child, produces the atmosphere in which this material is to be contemplated, mentally digested and assimilated, in the processes of education. All that has preceded exists solely that this may be possible, and that it may be done most economically, most effectively, as concerns the highest welfare of the individual and of the social group.

1. The Teacher Should Volunteer the Service

And who and what should the teacher be? Society has assumed at least partial responsibility for the training of those who are to teach, and should do so quite as completely as soldiers are trained for the business of war. Society also undertakes the selection of those who are to teach, including all the raw recruits who seek to enlist in the work without special preparation. The supervising agencies of the schools are supposed to take care of the teachers' progressive training in service. But, as for the attitude of all those who enter the service, they should be volunteers. Economic compulsion

undoubtedly causes many to seek positions as teachers. With these it is largely only a temporary "shift." The exceptional cases may belong in one of two classes: those who stay in the work because they lack the courage and force to voluntarily get out and those who cultivate a real liking for the work and so deliberately choose to remain.

2. The Typical Teacher Characterized

It is safe to say that the vast majority of those who have taught for three or more years have chosen the work of the teacher with some deliberation and as a matter of preference, either before entering upon it or as a result of experience. But, when we consider the shortness of the average life¹ of the teacher, the real number who have deliberately chosen to teach becomes relatively very small. "The typical American male public-school teacher," says Coffman, speaking in terms of medians, "is twenty-nine years of age, having begun teaching when he was almost twenty years of age, after he had received but three or four years of training beyond the elementary school. In the nine years elapsing between the age he began teaching and his present age he has had seven years of experience, and his salary at the present time is \$489 a year. Both of his parents were living when he entered teaching and both spoke the English language. They had an annual income from their farm of \$700, which they were compelled to use to support themselves and their four or five children."

¹ Coffman has shown that 77+ per cent of rural teachers, 44+ per cent of town, 44.65 per cent in cities of 8,000 and over, and 28.6 per cent in cities of 100,000 and over teach five years or less.—(L. D. Coffman, "The Social Composition of the Teaching Populations," Teachers College, Columbia University, Contribution to Education, 1911.)

Similarly, the same writer characterizes the female teacher as follows: "The typical American female teacher is twenty-four years of age, having entered teaching in the early part of her nineteenth year when she had received but four years training beyond the elementary schools. Her salary at her present age is \$485 a year. She is native born of native-born parents, both of whom speak the English language. When she entered teaching both of her parents were living and had an annual income of approximately \$800, which they were compelled to use to support themselves and their four or five children. The young woman early found the pressure, both real and anticipated, to earn her own way very heavy. As teaching was regarded as a highly respectable calling, and as the transfer from the schoolroom as a student to it as a teacher was but a step, she decided upon teaching."

Here we have a fairly correct picture of the situation—of the teacher in real life. What can be expected of our schools under such conditions? Certainly, experience has long since shown us that we get much more and better by way of results than we should naturally expect. But in such general characterizations we must remember that there is always a goodly list above median who are able to project themselves, through others of inferior qualities, into a much wider field of influence than that represented by mere numbers. It is "the little leaven," after all, that is able to make us socially optimistic and render our schools reasonably efficient in spite of the general showing presented in terms of preparation by our teaching force. Nevertheless, it is undoubtedly true that one of our first cares should be to raise these standards to a much higher average level.

3. Personality in Teaching

But no amount of training in scholarship or professionally can make amends for the lack of certain personal qualities essential to successful teaching. Here the matter of selection is a far more difficult problem than in matters of training. The latter may be determined somewhat formally by means of the individual's student record and by examinations. The only effectively formal way to determine a successful personality is by observing the actual teaching work of the individual teacher and gauging the achievement in terms of such standards as are available for the subjects taught. It is in this aspect of the work that our methods are most crude and faulty. Outside of some few city systems there is no adequate method of checking and recording the capabilities of those who teach in terms of their personal qualities.

Every call that comes from teachers' agencies or city superintendents seeking information concerning candidates asks particularly about the "personality" of the teacher. Now, what is this thing about which all employers desire reliable information? And how is one to know the answer? If one knows the individual in question well and has seen him at work, he may venture to state a few facts about those personal qualities which go to make up personality; otherwise one's opinion must be largely a guess. And even at best it is not always easy to state facts, much as the necessity of the case may require the plain truth about a candidate for a given teaching position.

By personality we mean what is included in character and something more. One may possess an excellent

character and yet fail as a teacher. There may be lacking assurance, directive power, convincing qualities of speech and action, which play an important part in personal control of others or in commanding their respect. One's personal appearance is a partial index of this quality. Voice, cleanliness, taste in dress, facial habit, grace of movement or lack of it, all aid one in judging of the personality of another. Hence it follows that one may develop or modify his own personality. For nervousness, composure may be cultivated; for harshness of voice, soft and musical notes; for brusqueness, affability; for careless dress, tastefulness; for uncleanly habits, scrupulous neatness. It is not quite correct to think of personality as being, like the leopard's spots, inevitably fixed. But for him who thus despairs there is apt to be lacking that central factor in personality—force of will. Think of what could be done in the case of a Helen Keller; of a Demosthenes overcoming an impediment of speech to go down in history as a world-renowned orator; of the Elmira experiment with the twelve worst criminals. Only sheer lack of will need cause any one to despair. Wise coaching on the part of a supervisor is capable of producing marvellous results in cases which otherwise might be hopeless.

4. The Teacher's Ethics Concerning Appointments

In the matter of appointments there seems to be a woful state of things among teachers generally. Fear of failure to secure any appointment often leads to what appears to be a serious laxity in the average teacher's code of ethics. Possibly, when the teacher's tenure becomes less precarious, less subject to personal or neighborhood whims, on the one hand, or a mistaken estimate

of values in positions, on the other, this state of things may subside. As things now are, the moral effect on the profession is deplorable. No teacher should accept an appointment merely to secure him against final failure to obtain one. One's attitude should be that of determining a finality. There should be a willingness to "bide the consequences" when one accepts or declines an appointment to teach; and, indeed, the cases are rare, if one has the will, where such an attitude will not most surely win success in the long run. Occasionally, unexpected and therefore unsought openings come which so evidently mark a turning-point in one's professional career as to call for a reconsideration and request for honorable release. To such a request, fairly and rightly presented, few school boards will offer a denial. It is the heartless disregard of contracts for the sake of a few dollars more, or a little easier or more notable position, that has exasperated school boards and school superintendents almost beyond endurance. Such teachers have simply never learned real values; they do not know how to estimate the cost of such an act.

5. Professional Attitude of the Teacher

This consideration brings before us the larger question of the professional attitude of the teacher. Such a relation on the part of the individual teacher appears with reference to (1) the administrative organization of the schools; (2) the individual members of the teaching force of which he is one; (3) the school as a whole in its larger social aspects; and (4) various larger educational interests. The school is an organization in which several individuals, the number varying with the population included in the unit of control which the school is

to serve, are collaborators toward a common end and purpose. Such a situation always calls for that spirit of co-operation which we sometimes express as *esprit de corps*, "team-work." In other words, to follow the phraseology of athletics, each one must play his part in the game not only as an individual but as part of the team and therefore at the call of the captain. In the best sense this is not subordination, it is perfect co-ordination; and in teaching as well as in athletics he "plays the game best" who fully and heartily recognizes this fact.

This spirit of the individual, properly adjusted in a great social service, shows itself in the matter of appointments and contracts to which reference has already been made. It appears also in the teacher's attitude toward the superintendent and all supervising officers. It manifests itself in the spirit with which all rules are observed, all suggestions heeded, all advice and counsel received and appropriated. It becomes evident also in the promptness, fulness, and accuracy of reports; in attendance upon and participation in all meetings of special groups or of the entire teaching body; in a willingness to share the burden of preparation for discussions or in carrying on investigations relative to the more difficult problems of the school; in the way in which any emergency call is received, whether in case of illness or absence of a fellow teacher, or because of some unforeseen excess of work to be distributed, or in the face of some accident or grave danger.

Not less vital and important is that professional attitude which manifests itself in the teacher's relationship to the other members of the corps as well as of the profession at large. The true spirit shows forth in a genuine comradeship. Each individual has a jealous

care for the professional reputation, the personal well-being of every member of the group. If one is in any difficulty, sympathy is apparent from each of the others. Does another achieve something of note, receive some special honor or recognition, it is counted as so much gain for all. The fair-minded teacher permits no evil gossip, in his presence, concerning any other member or official of the corps. A right professional attitude is inimical to covetousness, to jealousy, to unfair play. It never expresses itself in an effort to "protect" local or State teachers against fair competition by outsiders.

Entirely aside from the personal responsibilities of the teacher in instructing the pupils assigned to his care, there are certain general interests connected with the general social life of the school in which all teachers are called to share. This relation is most marked in a large school unit or centre. To ignore or neglect this aspect of the teacher's work, without good cause, is a serious breach of professional obligation. The individual who enters into contract to teach in a certain capacity, without having carefully considered and accepted this and all other professional obligations as essential to the success of his work individually and of the school as a whole, will probably not proceed very far without some unhappy experiences.

Then, too, there are interests involving professional spirit and loyalty lying entirely outside of the particular school in which one is called to instruct. It is one of the peculiar characteristics of democratic institutions that each individual must devote some time and trouble to matters of general public concern without pay. In this respect the teacher is not exempt; and especially does the obligation lie to lend a hand in all honorable and unselfish plans for the betterment of schools and

for general professional uplift. This does not imply that there should be an attitude of supine acquiescence, as by compulsion, in doing what is a downright wrong or imposition. The individual always has a right to be heard; but when full and free discussion has been had and a decision reached the individual should strive to make the decision of the majority his own in so far as immediate action is concerned.

6. The Teacher's Rights and Privileges

No such effective co-operation as is implied in the foregoing discussion of the teacher's professional attitude will be possible without due recognition, on the part of all in authority and all coworkers, of the rights and privileges of the teacher. It has been seen to be the province of society to train and select teachers. No matter what may have been the teacher's antecedents, this training and selection should be sufficient guarantee of the teacher's right to respectful treatment as a member of society. If there remain any real personal causes for even an approach toward social ostracism, then society, and not the teacher, is culpable. The teacher, once chosen and appointed, is entitled to consideration commensurate with the high calling of those who are to be the intimate guides and instructors of the young. Each teacher owes it to himself and, indeed, to his calling to keep in touch with the normal social life about him. The allotment of work should be such as to make readily possible his recognition and acceptance of this relation which should be cherished as at once a privilege and an obligation.

There are also the professional rights of the individual teacher. He is entitled to a fair and impartial rating by those who supervise his work; to advancement and

recognition on merit for service rendered and for ability displayed. No extraneous "influence" should have weight here. The duties assigned should leave the individual a fair chance for participation in all the privileges of his profession proportionately with those with whom he works. Speaking abstractly, the individual teacher has a right to expect those opportunities necessary for and essential to his professional improvement that lie outside of his immediate personal work in the school. Neither the board nor the supervisor can rightfully neglect making provision for such participation in the recognized means of training in service.

Most vitally important of all are the personal rights of the teacher—the right to compensation adequate to enable him to meet all his obligations, family, social, professional; the right to a fair and equitable allotment of hours; to suitable room and equipment; to the sympathy and respect of all coworkers, whether of equal rank or otherwise, in the distribution of the tasks of the school; to opportunity for such rest and recreation as the strenuous nerve strain of the teacher's work requires. How else can the spirit of the teacher be free, the mind clear and alert, the body a sure support, in vital energy, for the duties of the schoolroom?

7. The Teacher's Duty to Self

The teacher's duty to himself is akin to his personal rights in effect. Of what consequence will all these other things be—how will leisure or compensation or sympathy profit the individual who is profligate of self and all material resources; who neglects the opportunity for physical recuperation; who drains his vitality to the dregs in a vain effort to do the impossible or in a lazy dread of unaccustomed physical exertion?

Equally fatal would be the neglect of his mental life and growth, of that wider reading and experience which will give him a broader outlook on life. The teacher who grows old and worn-out before his time is not he who numbers the most years of existence or of service. It is the one who settles helplessly into the routine of daily tasks, content to permit them to absorb his whole time, to become the sum total of his entire round of experiences. To such a one life is little, if any, longer than the time it takes to acquire a set of habits associated about a few closely related central experiences.

The work of the teacher calls for the man at his best—the man who is alive, growing, enthusiastic, adjusting himself daily to the changing demands of his task. It is the final purpose of the administration of education to place in the hands of such persons the instruction of all those who should be taught. That type of administration of instruction which undertakes to impose fixed methods upon the teacher is fatal. It nullifies at one stroke all that the entire fabric of organization outside the teacher's domain was intended to accomplish—that of aiding him in the independent, untrammelled occupation of his domain.

8. Preparation Which the Service Demands

The school is that convention of society in which it is undertaken to set up a series of experiences, selected and condensed as compared with individual life experiences, in order that the young may come thus prematurely into possession of the essence of those things which represent the best of what the race has achieved up to the present time. At the very best the task is a stupendous one, made more so by each passing year. The teacher is the artist, the inspiration, the vitalizing

medium in the process. His task is not, as some suppose, to measure off lessons by the page or exercises by the hour until the years of preparation of childhood and youth have been lived through. His is a far more complex problem of service. He is constantly experimenting not with inert matter but with life—with human life both in its physical and mental aspects. He constantly seeks the material, the exercise, the experience which is to set up in the bodies and minds of individuals experiences that correspond, in their trend, to those fundamental conventions which represent the legacy of all past generations to those of the present and future; individuals who, in turn, are to bear forward the trophy for another lap in life's endless relay.

Viewed in such a light, what preparation, befitting such a task, should the teacher seek for himself? Shall it be just barely enough to pass the lenient requirements of certificating laws made obsolescent by the swift march of progress? Or shall it be the very most and best that his effort can win, with plans for annual instalments of increase sufficient to keep a little ahead of the best educational practice? Certainly, if one is sincere with himself and with his calling, nothing short of the latter will do. Only the time-server will be content to drift along, resorting to all sorts of substitutions for professional merit in order to keep himself employed.

But when it comes to a specialized choice in the field of teaching a different problem is presented. Here one must study his or her own tastes and aptitudes with the purpose not only of avoiding that which is distasteful but also of finding that to do which shall be a perennial joy in the doing. For the price of success in the teacher's field is inexorably heavy, and serious will be

the handicap where real love for the work is lacking. It is doubtless true that there will be found differences in the present promise of various fields of teaching as far as compensation is concerned. Public sentiment is very fickle in such matters. Nevertheless, there is a fine success to be won in any field. Is the teacher lured by the present glamour of some recent development in education calling for a special preparation and promising a larger reward? Let him beware lest he undertake a task of which he may soon grow weary. Let him not disregard the real bases of value in that which he is to take up deliberately as his life's task.

In making such a selection from the larger field one should consider the possibilities of promotion and the initial preparation which such promotion will require. As life's responsibilities increase with years—for such is the normal experience of mankind—there will come also the need of increase in one's income. Fortunate, indeed, is that person who always, when opportunity presents itself for advancement in a chosen career, finds himself ready to take advantage of it.

CHAPTER XIX

CLASSIFICATION AND PROMOTIONS

1. The Problem Stated

No other problem in the field of educational administration that is related directly to instruction presents so many stubborn difficulties as does the problem of classification and promotions throughout the various stages of the educative process. This is undoubtedly due to our system of mass education, made necessary by reason of our attempt to make free public instruction universal. Nor is there any way of escape, except through a process of political and social reversion. Overwhelmed as we are in our efforts to provide facilities for all, even *en masse*, how utterly hopeless and inconceivable becomes any thought of a system of individual instruction. And, indeed, it is not likely that any such system would prove superior to the present simultaneous or class system of instruction. On the contrary, the latter method probably has more in its favor than would equal the sum of all its disadvantages. Any teacher who has gone from the tutoring of a single student to the enthusiasm of numbers and the interchange of thought of class teaching is readily prepared to appreciate the advantages of class work.

2. The Theory of Classification

In our educational progress we seem to have been a little slow in finding a satisfactory basis for classifying

groups of individuals together for purposes of instruction. However, when we consider the newness of it all, the movement no longer strikes us as being so very tardy. The general theory is that there are minds which move at an average or median rate, usually designated as normal and constituting a majority of children or youth of a given age or stage of development. Below these are subnormal types, and above are supernormals. The aim in classification should be to keep the normals moving regularly forward together, while the subnormals are set out for special treatment and the supernormals moved ahead with a rapidity commensurate with the superior facility with which they are able to master the work of a given period.

3. Frequent and Careful Revision Necessary

This theory is a very general one and carries with it several possibilities of error in interpretation or application. In the first place, some of the factors causing these differences are likely to be eliminated, as time goes on, by the natural processes of individual physical and mental development. Thus, one who was subnormal last year may be a good normal this year. In the second place, the tests for normal or other condition may be wrong in character or imperfectly applied. In either emergency, the results will be misleading and liable to end in a loss for the individual. This means, simply, that classifications should be subject to frequent and careful revision.

4. Individual Work and Correct Measure of Achievement

It implies also that there will need to be always individual work on the part not only of the teacher of the

special class but also a modicum of individual work by the teacher of normals. Such treatment of the problem calls for constant alertness on the part of the teacher in charge as well as of the immediate supervisor of the work. It requires, moreover, a clear understanding of what experiences are to be set up in the minds of the pupils, through the processes of instruction, at a given stage of development and by a given subject or exercise. Only on such grounds of knowledge and insight can there be any intelligent testing and judging of the pupil's achievement. One of the most common failings of our present-day methods is due to the prevailing practice, at all stages of educational work, of applying only quantitative or memoriter tests in the efforts to determine a pupil's progress. Thus far, in our attempts to measure achievement, too much sameness has characterized the treatment of subjects widely different. Think, for instance, of testing achievement in history study by the same question-and-answer method applied to mathematics. How is such a method to throw any light on the socializing process which has been going on, a mental process of change of which the pupil himself may be entirely unaware? Yet is this not the chief end sought in the teaching of history? Students in school or college are mentioned as having good minds but slow of expression, meaning, ordinarily, that they think things through and therefore gain real information. On the other hand, the precocious individual talks glibly of a subject only as he remembers the sayings of some writer or lecturer, while he thinks little or not at all. The common practice would be to underrate the former and overrate the latter. The rather exceptional teacher will discover the really significant facts about the two and probably reverse the

ranking. In high school or college, the ratings of several different teachers, through the device of distributing grades, will serve as a check and balance. In the case of the elementary schools the supervisor of instruction should be able to act as a check upon errors in judgment by teachers.

5. Correct Classification Calls for Careful Study of Changes in Individuals

In order to establish and preserve a good working classification, a very close watch needs to be kept upon the pupils of the first five or six grades of the elementary school. If the basis for classification has thus been well looked after through these first years, there should be little trouble later on. Both teacher and supervisor will need to have clearly in mind such measurements for achievement as are available. Not until recently has attention been called definitely to the possibility of a real scientific measure of efficiency in a given subject. The time will doubtless soon come when no one will think of making promotions in our schools on any other basis. The children who early manifest a weakness or inability to carry the simpler exercises of the first few grades will call for special care. If, after due testing, any are found decidedly below normal in their mental ages they should receive special expert treatment in the school for specials.

6. Special Care in Case of Abnormals

Similarly, provision will also be made for those who show a decidedly supernormal capacity. These should be moved forward to the next group above as soon as they are found to be prepared for the work of that group. A careful elimination of specials, both below

and above normal, should make it comparatively easy to preserve the regular classification. At the same time, it will always be necessary to bear in mind that not all who classify regularly for a given year will necessarily remain normal for all succeeding years. A sudden awakening of some dormant power may discover a new super-normal. Such awakening may come as a result of a cycle of development completed during a vacation and thus account for one of those marvels in the character of a dull or ordinary boy who has suddenly been transformed to a paragon of docility and aptness in the grade higher up.

Then, again, some of those classed as specials in the subnormal group will be restored, as thoroughly competent, to their regular grade. There is always danger, in the case of those classed in the deficient group, that this condition may be taken for granted as a permanent thing. For this reason, only specially capable teachers should ever be intrusted with the teaching of these groups. Ultimately, there should come out of the classes for those who were found to be laggards at least two groups of pupils: (1) those who are able to recover their grades and keep up with normal classification; (2) those who are permanently defective but who are capable of taking a fair degree of mental training when made sufficiently concrete. For these, regular vocational training should be early provided. It is assumed here that those who might otherwise constitute a third group as hopelessly defective mentally should have been discovered earlier and differently cared for under direction of the psychological clinic.

Non-attendance at school, especially when caused by sickness or when accompanied by severe physical labor amounting to overwork, will be likely to add to the

second class even from the ranks of those who started out fairly as normals or even stronger. These should have especially careful treatment in order to enable them to regain as much as possible of the opportunities of which external circumstances may otherwise permanently deprive them.

Besides the special classes already referred to, there will or should be classes for tuberculars with suitable open-air conditions, classes for those of defective hearing, for the blind, and for cripples. These classes will all require teachers especially qualified to deal with the peculiar difficulties in instruction which such cases present.

7. Periods of Promotion as Affecting Classification

As a very important factor in preserving right standards of classification, some careful provision for ease of movement from one class to another next above is essential. The semiannual promotion plan was among the first devices to be set up chiefly for this purpose. But here the time to be bridged over is frequently too long to be successfully covered. The plan carries with it the idea of special promotions on the part of the accelerants in a given group. It also simplifies the problem of getting those slightly retarded in readiness for the regular forward movements of classes.

A still more effective device for simplifying such interclass movements is the one developed at Cambridge, Mass. By this plan two parallel courses are arranged for the eight grades of the elementary school. Course A, the basal course, is divided into twenty-three grades, three for each year except the eighth, which has but two. Thus each grade covers the work of about three months. Course B, the parallel or supplementary

course, covers the same work in six years and is divided into seventeen grades. That is, pupils taking the basal course are required to do only two thirds as much work in a given time as those in course B. In each course there are three regular promotions a year, except in the last, where there are but two, in order to adjust to high-school entrance. Such a plan it will readily be seen, makes interclass changes, either upward or downward, a comparatively simple matter.¹

8. What Shall Be the Basis for Promotions

Whatever may be the plan adopted for general and special or inter-class promotions, some well-considered scheme as a basis for these promotions will be necessary. There are at least five such general schemes in use: (1) regular monthly and term examinations; (2) the class record of the pupils as kept from day to day; (3) a combination of (1) and (2) according to some arbitrarily fixed ratio; (4) class record supplemented by a test intended to show the ability of the pupils to do the work which is to follow in the next higher grade; (5) promotion by subjects based on ordinary examination and class-record ratings. Few schools are to be found where scheme (1) is used exclusively. Scheme (2) occurs more frequently and especially in higher grades of school work. If the record has been thoughtfully made, not on the spur of the moment, as merely estimating the percentage value of a recitation, but deliberately after the class recitation is closed as expressing the comprehension, the growth of the pupil, the estimate thus recorded may be a very safe index of the pupil's advancement.

¹ For a fuller description of this plan, see the Annual Report of Cambridge for 1910, pp. 19-21.

Still more satisfactory will be scheme (3) if thoughtfully carried out. The examination should serve chiefly to indicate the pupil's grasp of knowledge involved, his clearness of analysis and consequent accuracy, his logical organization of the work gone over. The class record should show clearly a definite progress in knowledge and thought power or the contrary. Each should serve to check the other. The arbitrarily fixed ratio would better be avoided. A curious modification of this method is found in use in some high schools. Pupils who attain a certain standard in class record are excused from the examination. This practically announces to the school that the sole utility of the examination consists in determining the pupil's rank and that even in this relation it can just as well be dispensed with. As a matter of fact, the examination, rightly conducted, may be one of the very best correctives for both teacher and pupil. This real value should not be thus discredited.

Scheme (4) differs from (3) chiefly in the nature of the examinations, especially that made from the office of the superintendent. These examinations or tests are so framed as to seek to test the pupil's ability to go on with his work. The plan eliminates the possibility of a mere memory test of what has been gone over in class. It seeks to know the ability to use the knowledge and power attained as applied to the doing of the next grade of work. Especial emphasis has been put upon this method in the Oakland, Cal., schools under the supervision of J. W. McClymonds. It has been used effectively in connection with a plan for special promotions adopted as the prevailing method in the Oakland schools.

Scheme (5) is advocated with the idea that pupils should not mark time in all other subjects because of failure to carry one or two. Not only does such a plan

do away with this evil of useless repetition but it also makes possible the repetition of work not at first accomplished under much more favorable circumstances. It also facilitates the adaptation of the school curriculum to the needs of the individual pupil. The objections urged against this plan are: (a) difficulties of administration involved; (b) danger that the pupil may neglect a distasteful subject; (c) interference with desirable correlation of work.

A very interesting modification of scheme (5) is described and commended by Superintendent W. H. Maxwell, of New York City.¹ The particular plan was in use in Miss Tucker's school, Public School No. 163, Manhattan. By this type of classification a pupil when promoted to a grade is classified on the basis of his weakest subject. "In grades where there are two classes, the classes formed would be graded on the basis of weakness in arithmetic and in language. In grades having three classes, classification would be made on the basis of weakness in arithmetic, language, and manual-training subjects. The new classes are designated and known as 4 B Arithmetic, 4 B Language, 4 B Manual Training instead of as 4 B¹, 4 B², 4 B³." By means of such a plan each pupil in the school receives double time in his or her weakest subject, and so in many cases a pupil who is at first weak in a given subject later may rank strong in his class. Such a scheme of reorganization of classes seems to avoid most if not all of the disadvantages of the method of subject promotions.

9. The Question as Applied to High Schools

Thus far the elementary school has been under consideration. The situation is changed materially when

¹ See Report of New York City Schools, 1910-11.

the high school is reached or even before this where the intermediate school is organized on the departmental plan. In both these situations promotions are almost universally by subjects, and the pupil who fails in a given subject either takes it over again at the first opportunity or substitutes an equivalent, according to the degree of election permitted in the school of which he is a member. The most troublesome cases in such instances are subjects in sequence. There is also to be encountered the difficulty of classifying so as to avoid conflicts in recitations. On the whole, it would seem that the plan used in the Manhattan school might be applied to great advantage in our larger high schools.

10. In Higher Institutions

In higher institutions generally the system of credit hours is used with liberal election schemes. If a subject in which a student fails to make his credit happens to be prescribed for his course as a prerequisite to other essential courses, or for graduation, the student must simply work through the difficulty as best he can in the time remaining for the completion of his work. The only help for the situation in these higher stages, aside from a general improvement of undergraduate instruction, is a more careful selection of courses in preparation in the high school and also of the special line of work to be taken in the college or university.

11. The Problem of Transfers

In this process of classification and promotions there arises, as a sort of by-product, the problem of dealing with transfers from one school to another. The development of modern industries and commerce has greatly increased the mobility of our population. As one result

of this change scarcely a week passes during the months when schools are in session that does not bring to the administrative office of the schools of practically every town and city one or more pupils by transfer from other systems. These become special cases for adjustment. Differences in school management always stand out prominently in such instances. Fortunate, indeed, is it for the pupils concerned if they do not lose something by the exchange. The work done in given subjects in the schools thus compared may differ widely either in quantity or quality, or both. Some things required in one school system may be entirely lacking in the other. The problem is frequently acute.

In the case of the early elementary grades any discrepancy in work may soon be corrected, although not without becoming something of a tax upon the time of teacher and principal. As we advance in the grades the relative flexibility is less and the adjustment consequently more difficult. In the high school a scheme of equivalents may be used either by tacit agreement or by formal approval of the board. But even this will not always take care of subjects remaining in sequence through two or more years. In colleges and universities the problem presents many complications due to wide variation in aims and purposes affecting the formulation of curricula. In one case a subject may be purely elective which in another corresponding programme may be made a prerequisite to courses following.

There is a certain form of transfers for which the above discussion does not provide. It is the demand arising each year and often through the year for transfer of pupils from one school to another in the same system. Frequently, too, such transfers are called for

on account of overcrowding in certain schools caused by some sudden influx of population to the school community. The latter cases are frequently best cared for by the use of the portable schoolhouse which serves as an annex to the established school.

In the case of transfers called for on account of the thousand and one reasons which patrons offer in presenting their requests at the office of the superintendent there is usually more or less trouble in store for that official. Where regular district boundaries are established for both elementary and high schools the matter has to be handled with great care. The situation will be rendered still more acute when requests are backed up by "influential citizens" or where, in case of district representation on the board, influence is brought to bear upon the superintendent through the member from that portion of the city in which the petitioner lives.

Perhaps the most fortunate arrangement, all things considered, is to avoid the district plan of assignment altogether, as has been practised in Oakland, Cal., for a number of years. Pupils may then seek the school of their choice, but with the understanding that if the school to which they apply for admission has more applicants than there is room for the preference will be given to those residing nearest to the school. Then in case of rejection the pupil must go to the next best school of his or his parents' choosing where he can be admitted. This throws the whole responsibility back where it belongs, on the ones seeking transfer for special reasons.

12. Need of Reform in the Matter of Transfers

In all its aspects the matter of transfer of pupils in our schools and students in our colleges really calls for

some radical reform in the interests of true economy. The waste in this case will be seen to be both financial and in life possibilities of children and youth. Probably nothing short of a closer and more expert supervision such as was advocated in chapter XIII can be found to effectively remedy the defect. There are, no doubt, situations where a little more flexibility in the shape of a willingness to accept equivalent work along other lines than those required by the receiving school or institution would save students entering by transfer from irretrievable loss. Such a course, if adopted, needs to be clearly thought out by some one who is broad enough to weigh relative values rather than by some instructor or administrative officer whose subject or institutional prejudice might lead him to be partial in judgment.

13. Scientific Treatment Will Bring Relief

It marks a great day in educational advancement that the light of real scientific study has been turned on these problems. Even now no city superintendent of any city that is educationally self-respecting dares to neglect a careful survey of his classifications. He will see to it that the number and causes of retardation are known; and if remedies are not provided, so far as it is now possible for school authorities to prescribe them, it will not be by reason of failure on his part to make proper recommendations to his board. The work to be undertaken by the commission on school efficiency established by the Department of Superintendents of the National Education Association¹ is evidence that our superintendents are awake to both the needs and the possibilities presented in these problems which concern so closely

¹ Established at the Philadelphia meeting, 1913.

this important phase of the work of instruction—the classification and promotion of the young throughout the period of public-school training.

14. University of Missouri Plan

Similar efforts to arrive at a more rational treatment of the problem, as it appears in colleges and universities, are not lacking. In this field the University of Missouri has led in a very decisive and creditable way by adopting the device of scientifically distributing students' grades according to the natural distribution of ability or achievement. The plan was adopted by the faculty of the University of Missouri in 1908. The following brief description of this method of grading quoted from another writer¹ will be sufficient for the purposes of this discussion: "The system in question was introduced by the faculty, and its administration is in charge of a special committee of the faculty. It is definitely based upon the assumption that the distribution of ability or achievement in college classes is approximately normal. Every teacher is expected to rank the students in his classes in order of merit and then to assign the grades E and S (excellent and superior) to the 25 per cent ranking highest, the grades I and F (inferior and failure) to the 25 per cent ranking lowest, and the grade M (medium) to the remaining 50 per cent between. At present the distribution of the grades E and S and I and F among the groups of students ranking highest and lowest, respectively, is left to the individual teachers. The committee on grading, after the close of each semester, publishes a statistical table showing the char-

¹ "Scientific Grading of College Students," Raymond W. Sies, Professor of School Administration, University of Pittsburg, 1912. (Reprint from Univ. of Pittsburg Bulletin, vol. VIII, no. 21.)

acter of the grading of each teacher for the semester and since the inauguration of the present system. This table is circulated among the faculty. Teachers whose grading deviates markedly from the standards established are called to account by the committee and asked to justify their failure to conform. The grading of teachers of small classes is expected to conform to the standards only when taken through a series of semesters or years. This new system has very largely eliminated the diversity of practice in grading at Missouri."

It seems entirely within the range of possibility that some such scientific method for measuring achievement through examinations will in time be so perfected and its operation be found so satisfactory as to lead to its general adoption by college and university faculties. In fact, it may readily become more general in its application; for there is no reason why it might not apply to all systems of markings where different portions of the individual's work are to be graded by different teachers. This would include all high-school work and might also readily apply to the elementary or intermediate school where the work is departmentally arranged. There would also readily appear a field for its use in teacher's examinations where the markings of subjects are by different persons. There is certainly room for some such improvement in all these departments of educational classifying by grades.

CHAPTER XX

ACTIVITIES AND RELATIONS OF THE SCHOOL

There are certain activities and relations of the schools having to do more or less directly with the work of instruction which have not yet received the attention they deserve in this treatment of the subject. In all types and at all stages of educational work some more or less definite daily programme of study, recitation, exercise, or lecture is usually followed. The arrangement of such a programme, in any case, requires some care with reference to certain principles involved.

1. The Daily Programme

Children in the early years of school work need little time for study. About all they can do between recitations will be to engage in some seat work, such as writing, drawing, cutting, and construction, with materials ready to hand; or they may engage in directed play. Gradually, as they advance in age and grade, they should be taught the steps in preparation of lessons or exercises. As they advance into the period of sustained thinking, even of limited duration, they should be set problems which call for such mental exercise along different lines as represented in the different subjects. But always the period for such work should be timed to correspond to the limitations of the power of attention to one thing and of the pupils' range of mental

action. Likewise, in the recitation period, the time should vary, gradually increasing upward. The teacher should ever be alert to note the flagging interest and lack of attention which mark the limit of successful effort for a given period.

There is no finer test of the teacher's ability than the degree of success with which the adjustment of assigned study work and that undertaken in the recitation are seen to correspond to the present attainments of the members of a class as to power of sustained effort in attention. On the other hand, there is no more fruitful source of waste and of the forming of bad habits on the part of those taught than the failure on the part of the teacher to regulate the periods on a basis at least approximately normal.

Not only age and degree of advancement but also the character of the subject or exercise have to do with the determination of these periods. Further, the time of day, the physical condition of those taught, various unavoidable distractions will come in for consideration as modifying causes. Only those who intuitively grasp and sense these things, or those who, through careful study of psychology, have mastered the principles involved and their application, can be intrusted, without thoughtful advice and direction, with the adjusting of the time factors of the daily programme.

2. The Problem of Fatigue

Expressed in another way, it is the problem of fatigue that is to be hourly, daily met and solved. Under the old methods of the school, people thought to compel attention to study. It mattered not if the child's mental alertness was gone, the ability to fix attention on a given exercise exhausted. The everlasting "you must," with

threatened punishment for failure, has had to yield to the psychological law. This does not mean soft pedagogy. It is not the difficult things that come later in the exercises of the school that cause the trouble and are to be avoided or explained away by the teacher. Real interest in doing, in overcoming, will carry the pupil over these hard places, leaving him with the fine reward of conscious success at the end. Fatigue is not distaste for doing a thing. It is nature's cry of "enough" and must be heeded, or unpleasant, possibly disastrous, results may follow. This does not always require cessation of effort. A variation in occupation or exercise may serve the purpose. In the earlier grades brief periods of attention to learning processes should be followed by play, preferably in the open air. As pupils progress, the periods for the recitation or for study may gradually increase in length. As this ability to attend and later to concentrate for much longer periods upon problems of business or of one's profession or other calling is fundamental to successful living, its normal and full development in the process of education becomes very important.

3. Value of the Play Instinct

On the other hand, it is well that the play instinct be kept alive throughout not only the period of one's school-days but to the end of life. For, while variation of activity may be made to serve more and more as a means of relief from fatiguing effort, there is nothing quite equal to the spontaneous, happy spirit of play to relieve the tension to one's nervous system which comes from any prolonged attention to a sustained line of thought, no matter what may be the subject. Equally vital, as well as difficult of adjustment, therefore, is this problem

of providing, in the programme of school exercises, for proper periods of relaxation in healthful sport.

4. Theory of Rest

There will still remain the need of rest, which also should be a matter of care at all stages of school work, and especially with the very young, the abnormal, or the underfed. Somewhere, either in the home or in the school, or in both, the human race, especially the American branch of it, needs to be instructed in the art of resting and also in discovering the need and the value of rest as a means of increasing one's happiness and power of accomplishment. We hear much about the cause of temperance, and that is well. But we go on disregarding one of the most fundamental causes of intemperance by neglecting to study and teach the art of resting and its proper application. If, in our school work, by the introduction of certain features of the Montessori method or by any other means, we may instil from early childhood right habits and, later, principles of rest as related to accomplishment, no doubt we shall have gone a long way toward the elimination of a real national weakness.

5. The Lunch Problem

Closely allied to problems of recreation, fatigue, and rest is the lunch problem of the schools. The matter of properly nourishing the body in these days of complexity of food supply with all the uncertainty of source and quality grows yearly more serious. The situation is further aggravated in our cities by the confectioners' stores which always spring up in close proximity to the school. Could it be possible that some day there should be employed by each school unit of control large enough

to support such a thing an expert whose duties should include the recommendation to parents of what to include in the child's lunch either brought to be eaten cold at school or served at the home dinner-table? Does not this midday refreshment bear a sufficiently close relationship to the normal work of instruction to warrant such treatment? Already our large city schools are attempting a remedy by providing the warm luncheon at cost. In several instances, also, the underfed are being cared for by providing them with good milk to drink at the schools for specials, where most of those suffering from this and other forms of malnutrition go. In one city,¹ at least, provision is made by the student organizations of some of the high schools for supplying sanitary candies and other sweets at school on a basis of actual cost of making and handling.

6. The Problem in Higher Institutions

The situation as regards all these problems affecting the daily routine of school exercises is at least as unsatisfactory, proportionately, in the case of our higher institutions of learning, commonly speaking. The general disregard of any thorough treatment, either sane or sanitary, of problems of recreation, rest, and refreshment in connection with student life at these institutions is simply astounding to one who has developed any sensibilities toward such situations. Can it be possible that we may adequately justify these practices leading to a general devitalizing of this body of what may readily be considered the choicest of our young men and women—solely on the ground of the inviolability of their recently acquired personal freedom? Has the State, has society, which establishes and maintains these institu-

¹ The city of Los Angeles, Cal.

tions of learning for the public good, no voice, no right, no duty in attempting to regulate these practices?

7. Meaning of Recitation and Study Periods

The value and the legitimate uses of the study period and of periods for recitation, exercise, or lecture need to be understood and appreciated by all those having a part in the work of instruction. They should be approached, they will be approached, by the true teacher as one accepts a rare opportunity. They have been looked forward to—prepared for. The next thing in order is clearly seen, together with the normal process that is to unfold with the steps which follow. There is no dallying over forgotten relations; no filling in of time with aimless or empty questions or remarks; no uncertain note; no careless turning aside to waste time on questions merely incidental or unrelated entirely to the real, vital purposes of the hour. The well-directed recitation will vary from day to day. Now it will be to test the pupils on principles to be applied; again will come the formal drill on something which must become automatic; next will follow a general discussion of some event, or character, or institution, or process; or there may appear the need of careful guidance in preparation of work. To-day the teacher may utilize the time for expository work; to-morrow the pupils may do all the talking. Whatever may be uppermost at a given time, there will always be a definite aim in view, a certain work to be accomplished, as part of the larger general purpose which a given subject may represent in the whole process of education.

8. The School as a Community

The more nearly the school represents a community organization, at least in miniature, the greater will become its vital force in the larger community of which it is, or may be, an idealized counterpart. We have had too much of the completely isolated type of school for the good of education. Even when we speak of the "idealized counterpart" the thought is not that the school should be idealized away from its normal environment and contacts with wholesome interests of everyday living. It is rather that the school should represent these wholesome interests in proper adjustment and as far as possible without the unwholesome influences to be found at work in most communities. In order to do this there will come days when the regular daily programme will need to be varied or set aside entirely. Such special days and exercises carefully chosen as representing ideals to be emphasized and instilled are an essential part of education. But there is always a chance on these occasions of losing sight of the real ideal and developing undesirable habits instead.

Among the special days and exercises above referred to are the birthdays of our great national characters, traditional days of a semi-religious character, great events in literary history, or special days for certain seasons of the year. Then there are the special opportunities for exhibiting achievement in such interests as English expression, in rhetorical; musical accomplishment, vocal and instrumental; art work, pure or applied; various other accomplishments, as in manual and household arts, etc. When the school has succeeded well in taking on the community aspect these things

will all come in as a natural part of community life, and will thus be greatly enhanced in their educational value and also in the interest aroused on the part of the community at large. For instance, the music and literary exercises may come, as a matter of course, in the expression of community feeling on some memorable occasion to be celebrated. Another illustration would be found in a school where efficiency in household and manual arts was made manifest in various schemes of interior furnishings or decorations of school-rooms for special purposes. This would also bring into the presentation much of art and design. Always it is the usual formal set programmes and exercises that the children and older students dread and shrink from, while those things which are natural and obvious as a part of the community life are done with readiness and real pleasure. It need scarcely be added that when such a condition exists these things are also better done.

9. School Savings-Banks and School Gardens

In connection with this community spirit of the school, the school garden and the school savings-bank have become important features in many city school systems. Among cities which lead in the school-garden feature are Cleveland, Memphis, and Los Angeles. Cleveland was the first to organize a regular department for this work with the appointment of a curator to supervise the work. Memphis has also taken steps for a similar supervision under the direction of Superintendent L. E. Wolfe. Los Angeles has over sixty gardens in operation, according to the 1912 report. The high schools of the latter city are particularly strong in this respect. Regular courses are given in small gardening, horticulture, and landscape work. At the Gardena high school,

which is the agricultural high school of the city under the scheme of differentiation which Superintendent Frances has established, is the most extensive plant of all. Here about ten acres of ground are available. The courses include, with those given above, farm crops, dairying, and poultry-raising. The system is fully organized for the city, with a supervisor and several assistants.

The school savings-banks are an older development in the schools. The first of these is said to have been started in 1885 in Long Island City, N. Y. The object of this feature is to cultivate habits of thrift. In 1912 the reports showed twenty-five States as having savings systems established in some of their schools. In some instances this business feature has assumed rather large proportions. In Pennsylvania, for instance, the reports for January 1, 1912, showed a balance to depositors of \$344,769.87; Ohio reports for the same year gave \$109,610.65; and California, \$77,513.52. Seventeen other States showed balances ranging from \$1,000 to nearly \$70,000.

10. High-School Management of Business Affairs

Closely allied to this latter interest, as tending to develop thrift and also a wholesome community spirit, is the plan of having the students of high schools manage all business affairs of the high-school community. Here Los Angeles comes to the fore again with a fine organization of student activities and interests in which the teachers freely join. They assume the business management not only of their athletic, social, musical, dramatic, and literary events, but also of book exchanges, confectionery booths, and cafeteria lunch service. If they need to construct a tennis-court or an

amphitheatre for athletic purposes, or provide a printing outfit or a moving-picture equipment, they organize stock companies, selling stock to students and teachers, and go ahead. And here comes in a bit of fine civic training. No one receives any financial gain out of these enterprises. A faculty member, as treasurer, checks all accounts. If there is any surplus after all bills are paid, this goes to a general school or school-community fund. In one instance, at least, a portion of the proceeds is used to defray the expenses of indigent students in order that they may continue in school.

II. Extension Work of the School

This active relationship of the school, not only as a community within itself but also and especially as concerns the larger community of which it is a part, bears a very close and intimate relationship to the sum total of the achievement of instruction. It becomes a powerful factor in establishing the school in the minds and hearts of the community to which it looks for its continuation and support. In many of our cities the schools are coming gradually to be looked upon as social centres. In the more progressive cities and districts schools are being built with this idea definitely in view. Rooms are provided for literary clubs, for lectures, for public assemblies of various kinds. Laboratory and library facilities are being more widely shared by those in school and out. Provision is being made for the social life of the young as well as for the training in night-schools of those out of school who are thirsting for knowledge. All are familiar with the elaborate system of public evening lectures conducted by the schools of New York City. These lectures are free and are conducted at many different centres—174 according to the

1912 report. The lectures offered are technical in character. The centres are presided over by specialists, and the lectures grouped under three headings as to subjects: (1) literature, history, the fine arts, and social subjects; (2) science and industries; (3) geography and description of countries. The same report (1912) shows the total number of lectures to have been 5,573, with an average nightly attendance of 179 and an aggregate attendance of 1,000,190.

In the city of Cleveland the lectures are of a popular character. Milwaukee has developed a strong system of lectures, mostly illustrated, which are proving a great stimulus to social betterment. Many other cities, ranging from most of the leading large centres to smaller cities generally, are undertaking similar lines of work. All of this is helping to bring about that condition necessary in order to so distribute the results of progress in learning among all the people as to preserve such a healthful state of general intelligence on the part of those whose school days are over as the character of our social order demands.

There is also a corresponding passive or receptive side to the larger social relationships of the school. The enlistment of patrons in these social aspects of education through the organization of patrons' clubs has marked the beginning of better things educationally in a number of centres where now are to be found some of the best educational systems in our country.

12. Vacation Schools

A perennial problem of the school is the vacation time. If all the pupils could be pleasantly and profitably employed, at play or at work, in their homes or through home influences, the situation would be different;

no problem would exist. But such is not the case in most instances. The result is worse than a mere breaking off from all the lines of development set up in the school. In the case of many of the pupils, especially of the elementary grades, new and abnormal lines of development are started. In the cities, where many of the children are thrown upon the streets for the ordinary long summer vacation, the problem becomes acute.

There are not lacking other and urgent reasons for the establishment of vacation schools as these educational organizations are most frequently called. The school period of many of the children is limited at least to the legal limit by reason of economic pressure. The summer term makes it possible to gain the length of one ordinary school year in three or, at most, four summers of attendance. Such an extension of time also gives those who have fallen behind through illness or other enforced absence, or by reason of mental slowness in certain subjects, an opportunity to make up lost ground and so keep out of the classes for "specials."

The first of these vacation schools was opened in Newark, N. J., where in 1912 the first experiment was also made in the all-year school. The earlier forms of these schools, and, indeed, the form now most common, was intended especially to furnish occupation under suitable surroundings for children in the more congested portions of cities. These schools undertook such exercises as directed play, singing, nature study, and some light manual work. More recently another type has developed, which is distinctly academic in character. The all-year schools of Newark are examples. These were so successful the first year that the number of schools was greatly increased for the summer of 1913.

13. The All-Year Type of School

The courses in these all-year schools are arranged so that the work corresponds to the regular school programme. The regular school year is divided into three terms of twelve weeks each, leaving twelve weeks for the summer term or quarter. In this way slow pupils may gain time, while those who must shorten the school period make more rapid progress while in school. Cleveland conducts a vacation school of this character. In some cases, however, the summer or vacation school is organized chiefly for those who are delinquent in their work. Such a review school is typified by the work done in Saint Louis by recommendation of Superintendent Blewett. This work also seems to have proven successful and to meet a real demand.

In the all-year schools of Newark there were enrolled, in the summer of 1912, 764 grammar pupils, 1,695 primary, and 390 kindergarten, or a total of 2,849. The average attendance was 2,397, or 91.7 per cent. In the Saint Louis experiment in 1911 there were in attendance in grade schools 1,592 and in the high schools 676 pupils, or a total of 2,268. At the beginning of the last week of the term (seven weeks of six days each, morning sessions only) the total membership was 1,595. These figures are given here merely to show to what extent the people have responded where opportunities have been furnished, on the same level as regular school work, for summer attendance at school.

Evidently sentiment is rapidly crystallizing in favor of such an extension of the school programme, already an established practice in many higher institutions of learning. The State legislature of Wisconsin in 1911

enacted a law permitting cities of that State to organize and maintain vacation schools. As in all other movements for improved and enlarged educational facilities, the problem of financing is involved. . If, as is doubtless true, it can be shown that such a movement is but the shifting of a social burden with a distinct gain by reason of the shift, there can be little doubt but that, with the general readjustment going on in our schools, the all-year session will become a fixed policy of States and communities generally, or, at least, of city communities.

What has been said in regard to the school as related to the community may be said with special emphasis of normal schools and universities. For both of these types there is a great work, in the larger community of the State as a whole, in conveying to teachers at work in the schools the results of such laboratory work in education as these institutions may be called upon to do. In the nature of the case, most of this would devolve upon the universities as the institutions organized more specifically for carrying forward research in the field of educational progress. At the same time, there is a very promising field for the normal schools in bringing up the training of our elementary teachers in elementary psychology, the theory of instruction, and especially the technic of the classroom. This is a field of activity for these higher institutions the possibilities of which have scarcely been touched as yet.

We may say, indeed, that the university in particular has for its community work in the State the whole field of industrial and civic interests. In the acceptance of this obligation our colleges of agriculture are far in the lead, a fact due in no small degree to the impetus given by the more recent federal grants of subsidies for the

carrying forward of this particular department of State-wide education. Among institutions undertaking to meet this responsibility in a broader sense, as including general civic interests, the State of Wisconsin is clearly entitled to the distinction of leadership.

CHAPTER XXI

PRIVATE EDUCATION AND BENEFACTIONS AS RELATED TO PUBLIC EDUCATION

1. Growth of Private Compared with Public Education

No discussion of educational administration in a democracy like our own could be complete without some reference to the work done through private initiative or beneficence. In view of the history of educational development in this country, it is but natural that there should have been established large numbers of schools as private enterprises or as a part of systems of education of a religious character and serving often as propaganda for sectarian religious doctrines. With the fuller development of a system of public education the number of such schools has relatively decreased, as shown by statistics. The United States Commissioner's Report for 1911 gives the following: In 1890 there were 12,494,233 children receiving instruction in public elementary schools and 1,116,300 in private schools of the same class. In 1910 the corresponding numbers were 16,898,791 and 1,441,037, respectively, showing a relatively large increase in the public schools. For schools of secondary grade the numbers for the same years were 221,522 and 145,481, in 1890, and 938,437 and 193,029, in 1910, thus showing a still greater relative increase for the public schools of secondary grade. For students

receiving higher instruction the figures are, for 1890, 43,393 and 91,849; for 1910, 159,713 and 180,915. In this case, while the number of students attending private institutions still leads, the difference has been reduced from 48,456 to 21,202, or by more than one half. The higher instruction here includes (1) universities and colleges, (2) schools of medicine, law, and theology, and (3) normal schools.

2. The Problem Presented

Thus, in an open field where private initiative has been entirely unrestrained, public education is steadily gaining ground. This freedom has left individuals or organizations practically without guidance or restriction in the establishment of various types of schools. As President Pritchett puts it in his 1911 report: "In all but a few of the States of the Union any association of men who, for educational or business reasons or as a matter of local pride, desire to start a school or college may incorporate under the State law and obtain the right to grant all the degrees that higher institutions may confer. This lack of supervision both on the part of the general government and, to a large extent, on the part of the State governments has resulted not only in an extraordinarily large number of institutions bearing the name of college or university, but it has resulted also in the fact that these institutions have become involved in local rivalries, so that they represent in very small measure national ideals or national purposes." Doctor Kerschensteiner, in his comparison of public education in Germany and in the United States, voices a similar thought when he says: "Excessive freedom [in the United States] leads to the development of private educational institutions to an unusual degree, and, since

they are frequently established for profit rather than for cultural aims, or in other cases are denominational in purpose, they may become a real disadvantage to the State."

3. What Should Be the Attitude of the State?

These views, coming from men of such eminence educationally and in positions to judge broadly and in an entirely impartial spirit, cannot pass unheeded by any loyal citizen of our republic to whom they may come. It would certainly seem that where such great interests are at stake States should not hesitate to act in such manner as to protect the nation against any possible organization of forces likely to prove inimical to our cherished ideals and institutions. In the first place, it seems fair to say that no educational institution found to be established and maintained purely as a commercial enterprise should be permitted to receive or retain a charter. And in deciding all such cases the State should have the benefit of the doubt. In the second place, schools maintained by religious denominations, where a large part or all of the pupils' legal school years is spent in such training, should be required to give ample instruction in the history of our country and in a knowledge of the nature and obligations of citizenship. They should also be required to use every opportunity to instil our national ideals. For securing the observation of such requirements, such schools or institutions would necessarily have to be open to inspection by the State.

It may be said of any non-State institution established for educational purposes that its incorporation should carry with it the obligation to uphold our national life and institutions and to do nothing to hinder

in any way the proper development and efficiency in operation of any part of State systems of education. How, with anything short of such regulation and supervision, can we be assured that we are not harboring in our midst some propaganda of ideals that are utterly inimical to democracy? How else can we justify compulsory-attendance laws? There are in our midst, to be sure, a number of great institutions well known and revered because of their great service to the nation. They sprang from the same spirit of liberty and independence which actuated those who founded this nation. There are others of later origin also, established, let us believe, out of an unselfish devotion to our national welfare. Let it not be supposed that any of these are to be included in the characterizations given in what precedes or follows.

It is not enough that the founders of these less desirable schools and institutions declare that they are only catering to a real demand; that there are those who prefer to be in a class by themselves and to pay for what they get. If by such means there is to be fostered and perpetuated an unwholesome class feeling, then such schools are unfavorable to the instilling of ideals essential to democracy and should be dispensed with. Of all institutions which should not be permitted to exist unless thoroughly imbued with our national ideals and spirit are those institutions which are to train the teachers for our public schools.

4. Educational Foundations

In an entirely different class, however, are those institutions commonly known as educational foundations.¹

¹ A very good description of these is to be found in the U. S. Commissioner's Report, 1911, vol. I, pp. 29-34.

Among the most notable of these are the following: (1) The Carnegie Institution, founded in Washington in 1902 and incorporated by act of Congress. The initial endowment was \$10,000,000, subsequently increased to \$22,000,000. This was founded for the purpose of co-operating with other institutions so as to encourage, in a broad and liberal manner, such research and discovery as might require time and the employment of able men, and to seek to further the application of knowledge to general social improvement. (2) The same year there was organized the General Education Board in New York. The charter of this board makes its function broad and far-reaching in all departments of education. It was established with the same general purpose of co-operation in solving the more difficult problems in the field of public education. This board has an endowment (1911) of \$30,000,000, the gift of John D. Rockefeller. It also holds in trust the sum of \$22,000,000 from the same source. The activities of this board have, in the North, been confined to the promotion of higher education. In the South its work has been of a broader nature. Much has been done through this board to build up secondary education in the Southern States.¹ (3) In 1906 Mr. Carnegie again came forward with the establishment of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. The endowment was first set at \$10,000,000, but was afterward increased to \$15,000,000. The purpose set forth by the donor in his letter to the trustees stated that the revenue from this fund was to be used to provide retiring pensions for teachers of universities, colleges, and technical schools in the United States, Canada, and Newfoundland. At first, State institutions were not to be included, but were afterward

¹ More fully discussed in Chapter XIV.

added, together with the increase of \$5,000,000 in the endowment. (4) The Russell Sage Foundation was established by Mrs. Russell Sage, New York, 1907, by a gift of \$10,000,000. Its purpose, as set forth in the charter, included research, publication, education, and the establishment and maintenance of various charitable and benevolent enterprises. Mrs. Sage stipulated particularly that "it should be its aim to take up the larger, more difficult problems, and to take them up so far as possible in such a manner as to secure co-operation and aid in their solution." (5) The Jeanes Fund was given by Miss Anna T. Jeanes, of Philadelphia, in 1907. The fund was \$1,000,000 and was to aid in securing better rural schools for the negroes. Reports show that much effective and valuable service has been rendered through the administration of this fund.

It is due the founders and trustees of these munificent additions to the forces for educational uplift that the American public generally should know of and appreciate these gifts and the far-reaching influences for good which have thus been set up. It is doubtless true that there has been sometimes in the administration of these various foundations an inclination to overlook the restrictions as to infringement upon the free evolution and operation of public educational institutions. It is probably also true that this may be attributed to the zeal of administrators along their own preconceived lines rather than to any fundamental purpose in the projection of these beneficences. Taking the work already accomplished by them as an index, there are certainly great possibilities in store, much, probably most, of which will have a more or less direct bearing upon public instruction in our schools.

CHAPTER XXII

THE FORWARD LOOK

1. Persistence of an Educational Ideal

In the fourth century B. C. Aristotle wrote as follows in his "Politics": "No one will doubt that the legislator should direct his attention above all to the education of youth or that the neglect of education does harm to states. The citizen should be moulded to suit the form of government under which he lives. For each government has a peculiar character which originally formed and which continues to preserve it. The character of democracy creates democracy, and the character of oligarchy creates oligarchy; and always the better the character the better the government." No man can estimate what tremendous influence over the minds of succeeding generations of statesmen the writings of this great thinker of antiquity have wielded.

In 1524 A. D., or nearly two thousand years after Aristotle, Martin Luther, in his letter to the city officials of Germany in behalf of Christian schools, gave expression to these memorable words: "Even if there were no soul, as I have already said, and men did not need schools and the languages for the sake of Christianity and the Scriptures, still, for the establishment of the best schools everywhere, both for boys and girls, this consideration is of itself sufficient, namely, that society, for the maintenance of civil order and the proper

regulation of the household, needs accomplished and well-trained men and women." Thus early under the influences of the Christian era, with all Europe in the turmoil of reorganization, was expressed the fundamental quality of popular education as a means of perpetuating the home and the state.

Coming on down the centuries for about two hundred and sixty years we read again, in the language of the Ordinance of 1787: "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged." As practical evidence of faith in the significance of this statement, the framers of this remarkable document provided a substantial basis for the endowment of public education in the States, yet unborn, of the vast Northwest.

"If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization," wrote Thomas Jefferson in 1816, "it expects what never was and never will be. The functions of every government have propensities to command at will the liberty and property of their constituents. There is no safe deposit for these but with the people themselves; nor can they be safe with them without information." In 1845, after having led in that great educational revival in New England which brought about the establishment of normal schools and gave Massachusetts a State board of education, Horace Mann, the first secretary of that board, wrote in his educational report for that year: "Our common schools are a system of unsurpassable grandeur and efficiency. Their influences reach, with more or less directness and intensity, all the children belonging to the State. They act upon these children at the most impressible period of their existence, imparting qualities of mind and heart which

will be magnified by diffusion and deepened by time, until they will be involved into national character, into weal or woe, into renown or ignorance; and, at last, will stamp their ineffaceable seal upon our history."

Advancing another half century in American history, we find again the thread of thought clearly expressed, in 1898, by Woodrow Wilson, now President of the United States, in the following words: "Popular education is necessary for the preservation of those conditions of freedom, political and social, which are indispensable to free individual development. And, in the second place, no instrumentality less universal in its power and authority than government can secure popular education. . . . Without popular education, moreover, no government which rests upon popular action can long endure. The people must be schooled in the knowledge, and if possible in the virtues, upon which the maintenance and success of free institutions depend."

Again, within the present year, President Charles W. Dabney, of the University of Cincinnati, speaks as follows: "Man has, indeed, the right to govern himself, but without education he has not the capacity. Suffrage is not a natural right but a privilege assigned to those who qualify themselves for its proper exercise in accordance with a standard fixed by the state. All men, except abnormals, possess the capacity for education, and when educated have the power to govern themselves and the right to take part in the government of others. Democracy means self-government; self-government necessitates universal education, and universal education can only be accomplished by free public schools under the control of all the people."

In this series of expressions, extending through a period of twenty-two and a half centuries, what a remark-

able persistency is seen of the fundamental note—the need and importance of education as a safeguard to the state. Yet who of us is prepared to comprehend the full significance of this principle when applied to evolution of a great country like our own? What is to be the measure of this knowledge, this information, this intelligence of the masses as we sweep on to still unknown stages of our national life history? We know that in our constructive work—in the building of bridges, of ships, of great city buildings that ascend skyward—men begin to doubt the sufficiency of those mathematical formulas by which, heretofore, the builder has been accustomed to solve problems of strength and resistance. So, in this realm of the human understanding of great social and economic problems, who is to say what shall be the measure of that intelligence and that wisdom on the part of a great body of people whose dwelling-place extends so far and includes so many variations in those natural forces which are known to affect human lives?

2. The Problem of To-Day

The clear note struck by Aristotle has grown chiefly in volume and in the extent of its application. It is the remarkable persistency of it which must remove the last shred of any doubt that may have lingered in our minds. The problem of to-day is to find what applications to make of this principle and what must be insisted on by society as the minimum amount of popular education. The common man, no matter what part he may have in the industrial world, shares equally with all his fellows in that concern which society feels lest he be not equal to the obligations of citizenship in this great democracy. The man of wealth and leisure society scans no less dubiously as it seeks to discern the proper

fitting of his sons and daughters for their share in the common heritage of civic obligation. With every indication of the increase in the numbers of those physically defective or morally delinquent all normal members of the social body instinctively shudder. Who has not, at times, caught glimpses of this thing we call democracy, in its nakedness, appearing to our startled vision as some grewsome creature, its deformities laid bare in some lightning's flash of circumstance?

If Aristotle had said the last word as to the efficiency of education as a national resource we might be excusable if we looked with pessimistic vision toward the future. There is nothing in his words suggestive either of industrial efficiency or of social conservation. It is in the fact that subsequent ages have witnessed a vast increase in the scope and meaning of popular education that we find grounds for a splendid optimism. At no time in the history of education has there been seen such a broadening and deepening of educational thought and outlook as is now apparent. We are in the midst of a great social movement bounded by no lands and by no seas.

3. The Great Question of Social Conservation

Everywhere we hear of numerous problems which are being discussed, such as the following: vocational guidance and education; continuation schools and schools for the out-of-school classes; child-labor and compulsory-attendance legislation; physical education and health, including the playground movement; care of the poor and underfed; sex-hygiene and moral education; the care and training of defectives and delinquents; vacation schools; free high schools for all with equitable cost of schooling as affected by books, dis-

tance pupils have to go, or transportation. All these are but parts of that larger social movement—the great question of social conservation.

4. The “Feeling of Nationality” Our Hope

We turn, then, to the one steady, persistent hope as we read its interpretation in the tendencies of to-day. From the clear note of the past, blending harmoniously with the stronger tones of the present, we read the promise of future security. One doubt only remains: Will the masses also hear and respond? By what means are we to arouse and concentrate popular interest with sufficient force upon the task of perfecting a system of free public education that is equal to our peculiar situation? “If the feeling of nationality is alive among a people,” writes Doctor Georg Kerschensteiner, “unifying forces appear of themselves without compulsion from any central authority, even in decentralized governmental functions. This is true of the little Swiss federation as well as of Germany and America, and it is an indication that healthy organization, adapted to the living conditions of a nation, will make its own way everywhere.”

It is this “feeling of nationality” upon which we must depend, then, for the further and more adequate development of our educational forces and their common acceptance by the masses. It is upon this basis that the appeal of this volume is made to the American public. Nothing short of a profound faith in the ultimate expression of the people as it shall appear in the structures they rear, through their laws, for the right education of all the children and youth of the land can bring order and security to this democracy. Our school system has thus far successfully met and turned aside the

dangers of ecclesiastical control. The sway of the politician in certain departments of this branch of social service seems to be steadily waning. We have still to deal with a certain type of narrow industrialism that would make of the schools a training place for human machines instead of thinking men and women who are bigger than their jobs.

Our greatest danger, after all, seems to appear among the ranks of those who are assumed to be society's experts in the field of education. This is true not necessarily because of any positive attitude or movement against those readjustments which the educational situation demands. It appears more in a negative attitude of indifference and inaction, too often, alas! the result of ignorance rather than deliberate choice. From what has been presented in the preceding pages there appear at least five things which should be insisted upon. In this insistence will be needed that "feeling of nationality" to which Doctor Kerschensteiner refers. In fact, it should have an intensity amounting to real patriotism—a patriotism strong enough to enable us all, educators, legislators, members of educational boards, and all others called to lead in the promulgation of educational ideals, to put aside all lesser motives for the nation's good.

5. The Five Essentials to Progress

The five things most necessary are as follows: 1. *The thorough and continuous study of the present and changing social needs, both local and national, as related to our system of public education.* In this respect it seems that we have been guilty of serious neglect. The present industrial outcry against the work of our schools is in evidence here. Our teachers and supervisors, and practically all institutions for the training of teachers, should

respond promptly and wisely to this call. But there should be no undue haste. It would be folly for the people to rush to the building of special schools with none prepared to teach them. No less ill-timed would it be for teachers to prepare themselves before the people are ready to provide for the lines of work which industry demands.

The people are too ready to assume that anything may be taught in the schools by simply printing it in a curriculum. They do not always realize that the time and resources of the schools are already employed to the utmost limit. Many unthinkingly attribute all opposition by teachers and supervisors to the immediate introduction of vocational courses to a general disapproval of such work. What is needed is that all should get together. Those who are the chosen leaders in these matters should study the problem, socially and educationally, and seek to adjust the schools to the doing of these evidently necessary things in the most economic and efficient way possible. In this respect America has a peculiar problem which each State must solve in its own way. And this will be done. The coming school system will provide equal opportunity, commensurately with capacity, for the training of every future citizen of the Republic not made so by the act of naturalization.

2. *The freeing of all educational experts from political influence in their appointment.* This applies to all teachers and those closely related to the administration of instruction. To make this possible every superintendent of schools, every principal or president of a school or an institution, should be selected by an intermediary board whose members are chosen at large for the unit of control which they represent and who are elected by the people in a manner distinct from regu-

lar political elections. This applies to districts, cities, counties, and States, and is a vitally essential step in the forward movement of education.

3. *There need to be established by all the States right standards for the preparation of teachers and supervising officers.* Some States have already led in the fixing of such standards. The best thought of the country is pretty generally agreed as to what these standards should be. If there remains any doubt, it is with reference to superintendents and supervisors. Comparatively little attention has been given to the special training required for these officials. Yet there is no point in our system of education where the need of reform is more acute. The obstacles in the way are selfish rather than patriotic motives. The "feeling of nationality" is sadly lacking here.

4. *The principles of good business management should be much more fully applied not only to the business administration of education but also to many matters closely related to the administration of instruction.* There needs to be a better accounting system for the finances of the schools; but along with this should also be a fuller accounting on the side of output, of achievement of the schools, as compared with the investment, in capital and lives, which society is annually making in them. There should be a more businesslike management of the health problem; of the care of defectives and delinquents; of the whole business of classification, both as to lines of preparation which individuals should pursue and also as to forward movements of classes or individuals in the processes of education.

Our whole scheme for the training of teachers in service is crying out for readjustment in the interests of economy and effectiveness. Too many teachers' gatherings

are held without sufficiently definite results. The feeling seems to prevail that they can be made to atone for inadequate preparation. Teachers meet together in large masses, in district, State, and national gatherings, with little definite, organized work. The theory is that "inspiration" is the great thing needed. As a consequence, there is large expenditure of time and money quite out of proportion to the results attained.

5. *There is urgent necessity that more care be taken in the cultivation of right habits and the inculcation of such ideals as shall form a basis for a better morality and for good conduct.* It has been truthfully said that intellectual keenness is the most powerful instrument of destruction or injury which can be put at the disposal of depraved and criminally minded members of society. Along with all plans for the betterment of instruction should go the careful adjustment to it of those exercises, lessons, and experiences which shall make for better character. "Although we talk a good deal about what the wide-spread education of this country means," says Theodore Roosevelt, "I question if many of us deeply consider its meaning. From the lowest grade of the public school to the highest form of university training, education in this country is at the disposal of every man, every woman who chooses to work for and obtain it. . . . Each one of us, then, who has an education, school or college, has obtained something from the community at large for which he or she has not paid, and no self-respecting man or woman is content to rest permanently under such an obligation. Where the State has bestowed education the man who accepts it must be content to accept it merely as a charity unless he returns it to the State in full in the shape of good citizenship."

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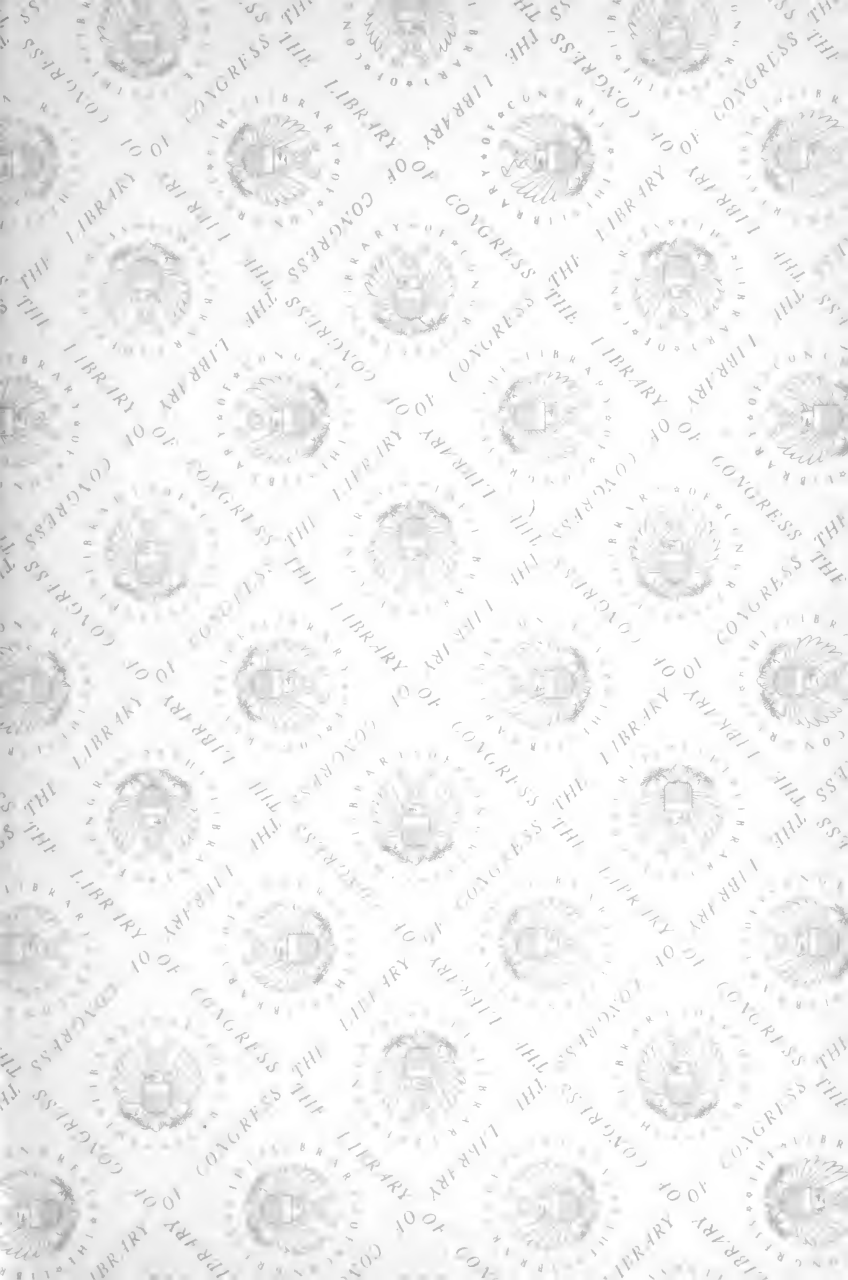
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